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ABSTRACT

A study examined vocational education in Greece. First, vocational education was placed within the context of Greece's political and administrative structures and economy. The evolution of vocational education in Greece was traced. The structure, objectives, and delivery of general education and initial and further vocational education were outlined along with the institutional and financial contexts of the Greek vocational system. Trends and future prospects in Greece were identified/discussed. The overall conclusion of the study was that, despite several important and many-sided efforts that have been made in recent years to improve vocational education, it still remains the "weak link" of Greece's total educational system. The following were among the many problems facing vocational education in Greece today: virtually without exception, in-school vocational programs have no link with practice; vocational qualification profiles are usually anachronistic; the social partners have practically no input in the design and implementation stages of policy; and vocational graduates' qualifications are incomplete and only minimally marketable; research is virtually nonexistent; and vocational education is inadequately funded by either national or European Community resources. (Contains 44 tables/figures. Appended are the following: list of acronyms/abbreviations; 79-item reference list; 50-item bibliography; and list of 12 relevant organizations.) (MN)

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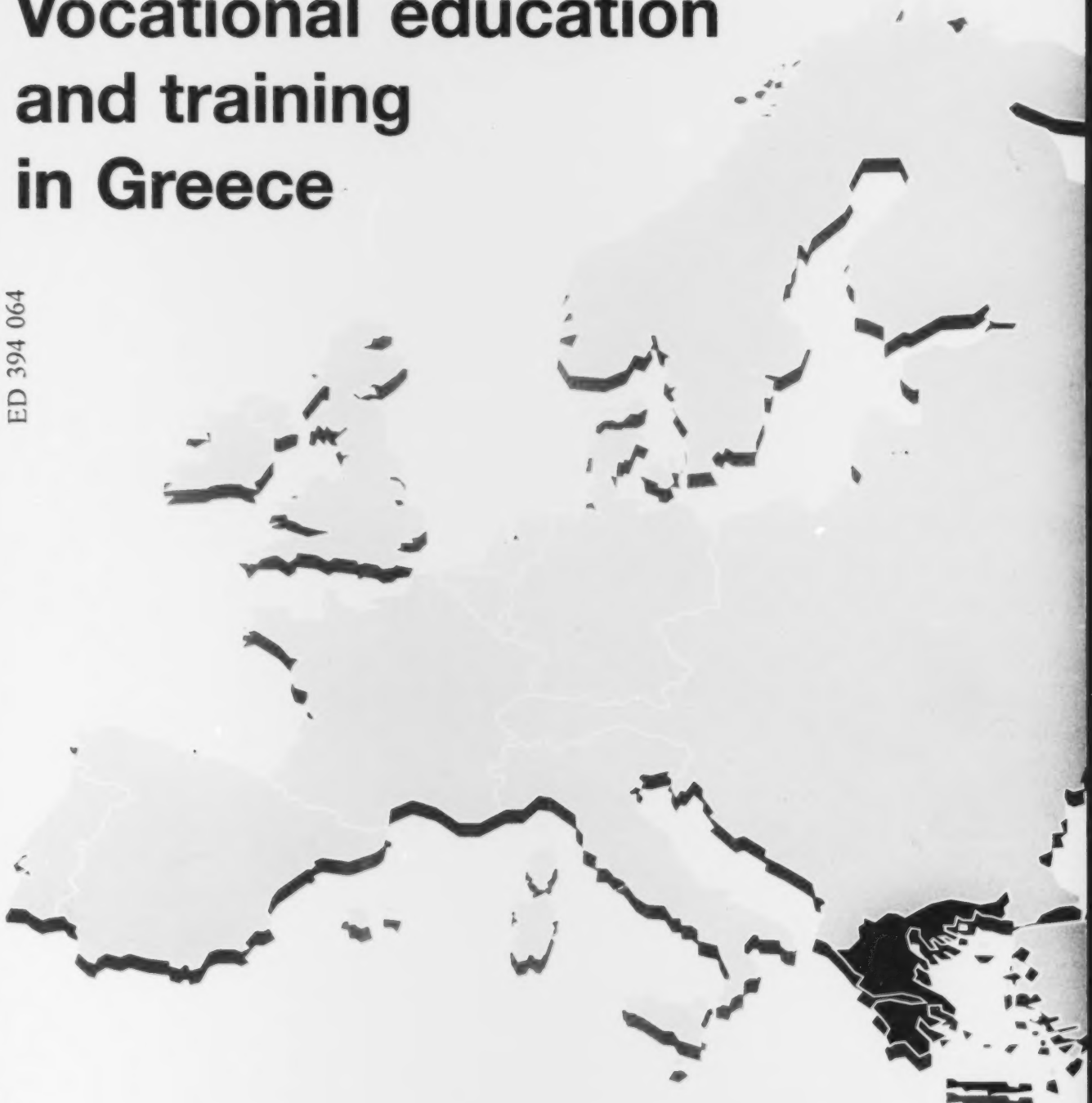

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CEDEFOP

Vocational education and training in Greece

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on behalf of
CEDEFOP — European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training

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CEDEFOP INTRODUCTION

IS THERE A SYSTEM?

Is there such a thing as a vocational training system? Strictly speaking, the answer is 'no', in that a system assumes a clear set of objectives and a logical and coherent framework for policy-making and execution to achieve them. In reality, vocational training, sandwiched between the education system and the demands of the labour-market, caught between the different and varying social, economic, and political priorities of political parties and the social partners, and in the conflicts between different ministries and public powers, located at national, regional, and local level, does not in any of the Community Member States demonstrate the characteristics of a system.

Nevertheless, this volume and the 11 similar volumes on the other Member States constitute a third generation of CEDEFOP monographs on the training systems in the Member States. In preparing it, much has been learnt from the procedures used for, and the reaction to, the earlier monographs and the guide to the vocational training systems, published in 1983.

CONTENT OF THE REPORTS

The present monographs have been prepared by one organization or individual in each of the Member States, following a detailed specification by CEDEFOP of the contents required. These specifications were discussed and agreed at a meeting in Berlin in May 1991.

The basic structure was designed to incorporate

(a) a presentation of the administrative, demographic, and economic background in which the training system exists;
(b) a brief historical review of the development of the training systems;
(c) a presentation of the arrangements for initial training;
(d) a presentation of the arrangements for continuing training;
(e) an indication of where responsibilities for administering the system are located, including the influence of the social partners;
(f) information on financing the system;
(g) an indication of present trends and developments, where authors were asked, in particular, to indicate how far the system has been, or would be, influenced by Community considerations such as the creation of the single European market, mutual recognition of qualifications, the intervention of the Structural Funds, and the Community's education and training programmes.

THE PROCESS OF PREPARATION

Authors were asked to send a copy of their draft report for comment to the members of CEDEFOP's Management Board in their country, and organizations with a major role in the training system. They were requested to incorporate the views expressed to the maximum extent possible. Whereas in general authors were asked to be descriptive and analytical, they were encouraged in the last section ((g) above) to express their own views.

Initial draft monographs on each of the Member States were delivered to CEDEFOP in the period between September 1991 and March 1992. As experience had led us to expect, the documents received varied considerably in their approach, content, and presentation. Between January and October 1992 CEDEFOP had a series of intensive meetings with each of the authors, in order to ensure that certain elements were added to the reports and that they respected specific rules with relation to presentation. A novel and very beneficial feature of these meetings was participation in many cases by the translators responsible for translating the volume concerned.

Following these meetings the authors revised their report on the basis of what was said during the meeting, took account of comments received, and included references to recent developments in their country.

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USE OF DIAGRAMS

It had been hoped that a large number of diagrams could be developed which would be common to all the monographs, and could then be used to simplify comparisons between the Member States by the reader. These could later become the basis of additional publications, such as a guide to the training systems or particular aspects of them. However, we have found that while it is relatively easy to obtain and present statistical information on the population, the employment market, and the economy, it remains difficult not only to obtain hard and comparable data on many aspects of the education and training systems of all 12 Member States, but also to present this information in a useful diagrammatic form.

WHO ARE THE USERS?

A question which came up repeatedly in the preparation of the monographs was: what is our primary user group? Our belief is that these monographs will be useful to a wide range of people active in vocational training, including policy-makers, practitioners, and researchers, but also to those seeking training in another country, and needing to know the framework in which it is provided. They are therefore, in particular, geared towards the needs of those who participate, or wish to participate in any of the Community programmes involving partnerships, visits, etc. Hence the emphasis on having monographs which are not more than 100 pages in length, and which do not require reference to other documents.

LINKS WITH OTHER COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES

CEDEFOP has been anxious that this work should be seen in the context of other Community activities with relation to information on the education and training systems. CEDEFOP has been glad to participate in the joint publication with Eurydice of *Structures of the education and initial training systems in the Member States of the European Community* available in English, French and German. The European unit of Eurydice, and CEDEFOP have also tried to ensure that the authors of the monographs on the training systems, and the Eurydice units providing information for the national dossiers on the education systems, should be in contact with each other. The European unit of Eurydice, and CEDEFOP similarly are continuing their efforts to ensure that the products of this work should be available to a wide audience, and with this in mind are investigating possibilities of holding the information on a common automated system.

In a more general way, as indicated above, CEDEFOP considers these monographs should be useful in supporting other activities of the Community in the field of training, and through this the implementation of the new provisions, contained in Articles 126 and 127 of the Maastricht Treaty.

The publication of these monographs does not mark the end of this activity. Arrangements will be made for their updating and their republication as appropriate and as resources permit. CEDEFOP would be extremely pleased to have comments on their usefulness and proposals on how they could be improved, from anybody who has occasion to use them.

Corrado Politi
Deputy Director

J. Michael Adams

F. Alan Clarke

Berlin, November 1992

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AUTHOR'S PREFACE

This monograph on vocational education in Greece was created in the context of an overall effort by CEDEFOP concerning all European Community countries. The structure of the text had been specified by the Centre so as to facilitate a comparative reading of the texts. Alongside the system of vocational education, we present all the aspects or parameters in continuous interrelationship with it, for example, the economy, demographic developments, technology, employment, the legal context, forms and sources of funding.

In Greece, vocational education is, in a way, the 'weak link' of the total educational system, albeit that in recent years several important and many-sided efforts have been made to improve the situation, especially through new institutions, innovative programmes and more active participation by the social partners. A problem which should be resolved directly concerns the binding regulation of vocational competencies gained by graduates of vocational education and training. Such competencies should be separated into distinct levels, in order to facilitate the design and implementation of education/training courses. Both the content and the final outcome of vocational education, in the form of degrees or certificates, should be fully harmonized with the aims and prescriptions of the intended European completion. This is achieved on the basis of a critical self-assessment of weaknesses as well as strengths in the country.

Collecting the essential statistics and information was often laborious, due to the lack of official data, as well as their dispersion in different services or due to the difficulty of access. It, therefore, proved necessary to carry out a primary research as well as the secondary research, by means of interviews and the collation of data from their sources. This was the only way to construct a picture of the present situation and to verify the data. To this end, through positive contacts and cooperation, significant help was offered by several people from various agencies of vocational education and training, and their contribution was decisive in the collection of data. On this point, I wish to express my warm thanks to all the people concerned for their support.

I would also like to express particular gratitude to the Greek representatives on CEDEFOP's Administrative Board, Mr Evangelos Boumi (of the Association of Greek Industries SEB), Mr Nikolaos Iliadis (government representative), Mr Rovertos Spyropoulos, President of the Work Institute (representing the General Confederation of Greek Workers GSEE), Mr Stamatis Paleokrassas, councillor of the Pedagogical Institute and Chairman of the scientific committee of the Vocational Education and Training Organization (OEEK) and Mr Theodosios Papatheodosiou, a professor at the Athens TEI and Greek representative on Sysdem. Their pertinent observations and additions to the draft text were for the most part taken into account when setting down the final version.

It is self-evident that a monograph of this sort may contain certain minor omissions or imprecisions, since it attempts to present all activities of vocational education, training and further education, together with a number of other parameters and has had to cope with the difficulty of finding complete and reliable information and data. Thus, every well-intended criticism is not only acceptable but welcome in order to correct possible mistakes or contribute additional data, in the context of a continuous 'ongoing revision', as is the future intention of CEDEFOP for all monographs.

Finally, my warmest thanks to Alan Clarke and J. Michael Adams of the Centre for our happy co-operation, as well as for the understanding they displayed whenever difficulties cropped up during this study.

Dr S. Stavrou
Macedonia, Greece,
autumn 1992

Greece

The 13 regions according to Law 1622/1986

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1.1. Political and administrative structures

1.1.1.
Greece occupies a total area of 131 900 km^2, of which 25 078 (about 19%) consists of islands. Since 1975 the regime has been a parliamentary presidential republic, when the institution of a democracy under a monarch was abolished after a referendum by a majority of 70% against 30%. The parliament comprises 300 members. Of these 30 are chosen based on 'the best' as State members, in accordance with a relevant list of the political parties and in proportion to the respective polling percentages of each party in the total of the State; the remaining 270 being elected by polling in general elections. The parliamentary term lasts 4 years. The President of the Republic is elected by parliament every 5 years, in principle with a majority of three fifths of the total of 300 members. Athens is the capital of the country.

1.1.2.
Administratively, the country is divided into 53 prefectures. The prefecture represents the actual executive instrument of the government at regional level. Every prefecture normally has the same number of directorates as do the ministries of central government. The prefect is appointed by the government, and he also holds the office of chairman of the prefecture council, on which sit representatives of various organizations or other agencies (unions, employers, etc.). This council may take decisions and also act consultatively on subjects covering various areas, for exemple, industrial, agricultural or educational policy and so on. Such consultation, however, is not binding for the administration.

Following the 1986 administrative reform, more specifically through Law 1622/86 and Presidential Decree No 51/24.2.1987, 13 'regions' were instituted. Each of these comprises several prefectures, between two and seven, except for Attica which, due to its size, constitutes a region by itself. The main instrument of the region is the regional council, consisting of the general secretary of each region, the prefects of the prefectures contained and one representative of the Local Union of Boroughs and Communities for each prefecture.[1]

The region's competencies, however, through its council, are mostly coordination rather than decision-making. Thus, among other things, the region creates and approves, following a proposal by the prefecture councils, the annual and medium-term development programmes of the prefecture and also the region.[2] Also, 'it distributes the appropriations for public investment programmes for projects of prefectural and local importance'.[3] Finally, 'it formulates for public sector agencies proposals for projects and policy measures concerning the region and which are financed by the public investments programme but which fall into these agencies' special development programmes. It also advises on these programmes before approval'.[4]

With special reference to the last point, the region has increased in importance as an instrument for the implementation of policy in recent years, since the European Community began to deal and cooperate directly with regions regarding the implementation of wider regional Development programmes. Such programmes are co-financed by the three basic Community Funds (ERDF, ESF and EAGGF) as well as the Greek State.

The 13 regions are the following:
(1) Eastern Macedonia and Thrace
(2) Central Macedonia
(3) Western Macedonia
(4) Epirus
(5) Thessaly
(6) Ionian Islands
(7) Western Greece
(8) Mainland Greece
(9) Attica
(10) Peloponnese
(11) Northern Aegean
(12) Southern Aegean
(13) Crete

1.2. Population

Demographic development

1.2.1.
According to the interim results of the 1991 population census, the country's total population is 10 264 156. In the last 30 years the population has developed as follows:

Total population, population density and changes in the years 1961, 1971, 1981 and 1991

Total population	8 388 553	8 768 641	9 740 417	10 264 156
Population density (persons/km²)	63.6	66.5	73.8	77.8
Change (in %)		4.5	11.1	5.4

Source: ESYE, Statistical annual 1983, p. 17 and information leaflet on the 1991 general population census, Athens.

To examine or interpret the changes or the development of absolute numbers, it must be kept in mind that the low rate of increase during the decade 1961-71 is the result of a fast accelerating wave of emigration, whereas the clear increase between 1971 and 1981 is, in part, due to the return home by the workforce from west European countries, especially from the Federal Republic of Germany. Thus, during the decade 1971-81, 332 791 individuals returned home and the natural increase in population amounted to 638 985 persons, i.e., the former contributed 34.5% to the total population increase.

1.2.2.
With regard to the geographic distribution of the population, there is a strong cause for concern in the concentration of large numbers of the population in two areas: Athens and Thessaloniki. The 1991 census showed that 30.2% of the population live in the area of the capital and a further 9.5% in the prefecture of Thessaloniki. Communications and transport between certain areas are made difficult by geographic and other features and this, occasionally, hinders the development of the areas concerned. This is one of the main causes for such inequitable population distribution. There is some encouragement in the fact that the rate of population increase between 1981-91 in both these areas, i.e., Athens and Thessaloniki, was lower (by 2.29 and 4.78% respectively) than the national average (5.37%) and it was also lower than the rates of increase noted in these two areas for 1971-81 (19.2 and 26.7% respectively).

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1.2.3.
As regards the age structure of the population, we note a clear 'trend towards ageing' for the whole period 1961-88. The following table illustrates the situation.

Population structure (in %) according to the main age groups from 1961 to 1991

(0-14)	26.7	25.4	22.0	19.8	18.7
(15-64)	65.1	63.7	64.8	66.6	67.3
(65 and over)	8.2	10.9	13.2	13.6	14.0

Sources: [1] ESYE, Statistical annual 1983, p. 17.
[2] ESYE, Monthly bulletin, April 1991, p. 9.
[3] EDIM Report in *Kathimerini*, 28.1.1992.

The marked contraction of the first group, i.e., young people up to 14 years, reflects the equally marked reduction in the number of births and the birth rate in recent years. Thus, the annual number of births decreased from 148 000 in 1980 to 107 770 in 1988.[5] Similarly, whereas a birth rate of 2.1 is required to allow for the replacement of the population, in Greece in 1991 it fell to just 1.4 according to EDIM estimates. Even within a Europe generally characterized by significant ageing trends, Greece occupies one of the last positions, as shown in the table below.

Birth rates in the European Community

Belgium	1.67	1.51	1.54*
Denmark	1.55	1.45	1.56
Germany	1.45	1.28	1.42
Greece	2.23	1.68	1.52
Spain	2.22	1.63	1.38
France	1.95	1.82	1.82
Ireland	3.23	2.50	2.17
Italy	1.69	1.41	1.34
Luxembourg	1.50	1.38	1.51
Netherlands	1.60	1.51	1.55
Portugal	2.19	1.70	1.53
United Kingdom	1.89	1.80	1.84
EUR 12	1.87	1.62	1.60

* 1986.
Source: Eurostat; *To Vima* (newspaper), 2.2.1992.

The population age structure at Community level is next shown as two 'age pyramids' for the years 1990 and 2000. The following table shows the age structure of the Greek population by sex and five-year age groups.

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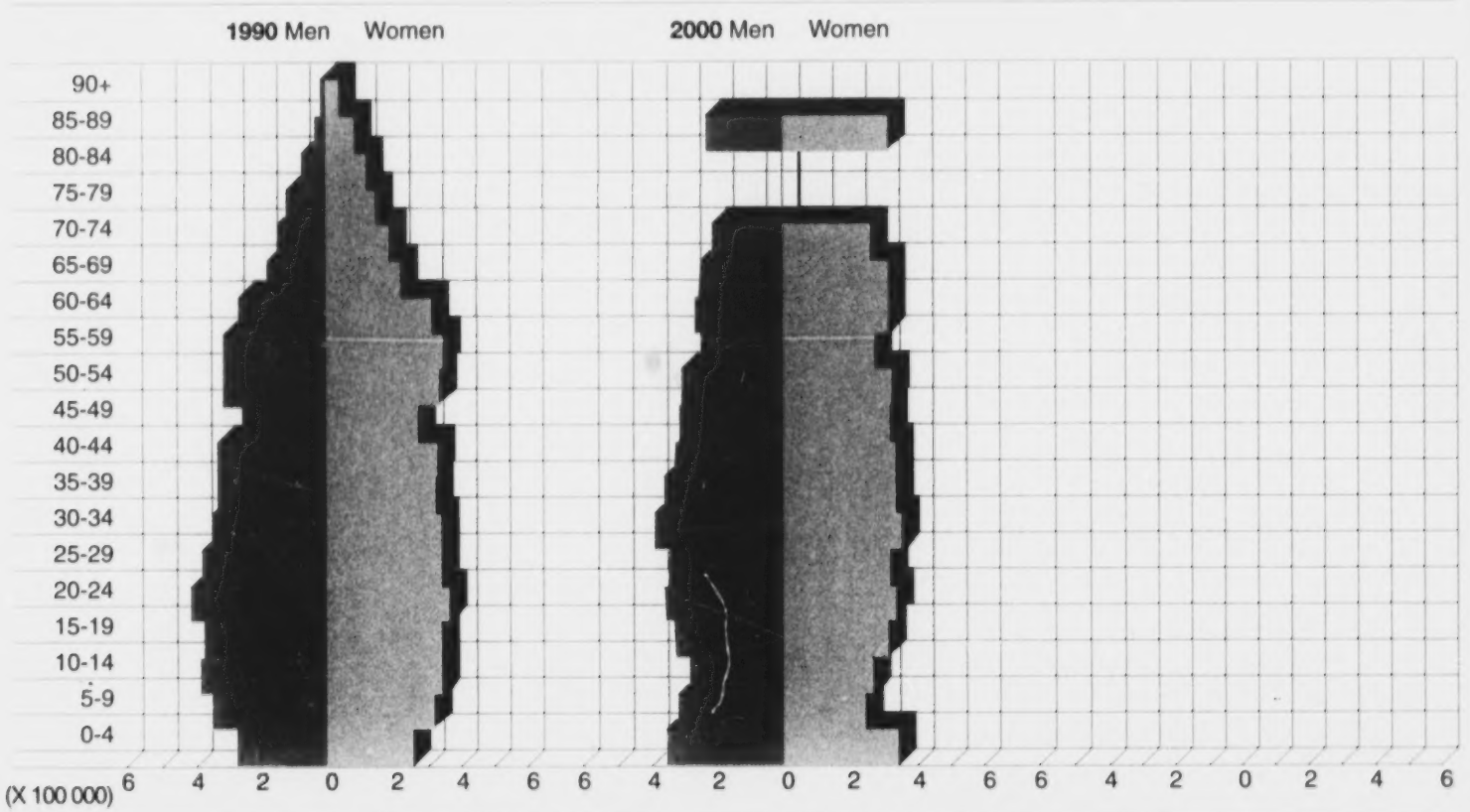
Age structure (Greece)

Estimate as at 1 January 1990 – forecast 2000



Source: Eurostat: *Demographic statistics 1992.*

1.2.4.
The future forecasts for this issue of strategic importance are exceptionally ominous for Greece, as also shown by other sources: according to the EDIM, it is expected that the total population will be reduced in the coming decades and, at the same time, the age of the population will rise, so that the age group 65 and over will constitute an increasing proportion. The relevant data are set out in the following table.

Forecast for the total population and for the age group 65 and over

Year		
1981	9 740 417	13.2%
1991	10 264 156	14.0%
2001	10 206 000	16.7%
2011	10 202 000	18.1%
2021	10 085 000	19.3%

Sources: EDIM report; *Kathimerini*, 28.1.1992; for 1981 specifically, see CEDEFOP monograph, 1985, pp. 5 to 7.

Employment and unemployment

1.2.5.
The workforce increased almost continuously between 1981 and 1988. Further data for absolute numbers and unemployment rate are included in the following table:

Total population and workforce, absolute numbers and unemployment rate from 1981-91

Year				
1981	9 740 417	3 577 600	148 600	4.0%
1985	9 934 294	3 882 500	303 900	7.8%
1988	10 004 401	3 960 800	303 400	7.7%
1991[3]	10 264 156	3 960 000	315 000	8.0%

Sources: [1] ESYE, monthly bulletin, April 1991, p. 9.
[2] ESYE, Employment statistics, 1983-89.
[3] ESYE forecasts in press bulletin of 17.3.1991.

At this point, we would stress that the above numbers of unemployed rely on the annual sampling surveys of the ESYE and do not correspond with the registered unemployed, who are significantly fewer for several reasons, which we set out immediately below. Data for 1989 and 1990 show a small fall in the unemployment rate but, using the interim data for 1991, a rise is noted again and, indeed, at a record level (8%), which is already suspected of being lower than the actual rate.

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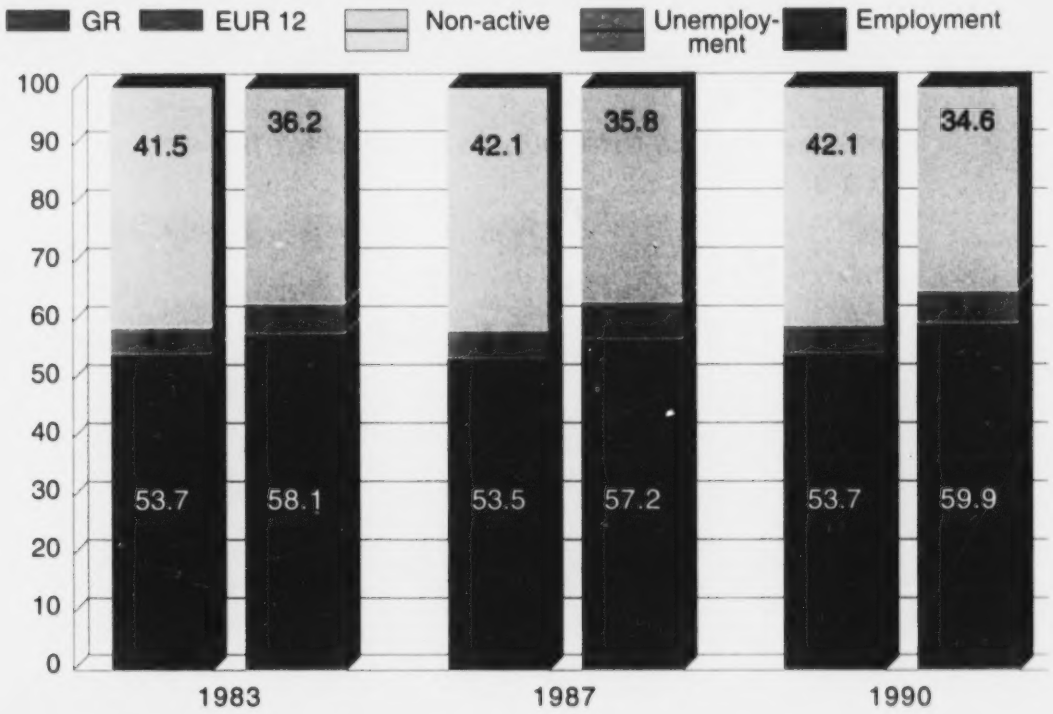
Population aged 14–64 according to economic status 1983/1987/1990 (in %)



Source: Eurostat: labour force surveys.

As regards Greece, in future employment data will continue to be presented from the annual sampling surveys of the ESYE and not from the unemployed and employed registered with OAED. This choice is not due to a potential unreliability of the OAED's data (indeed, the opposite is the case!) but it relates to an idiosyncrasy of the Greek labour-market: the employed, as a proportion of the economically active total, is traditionally low, whereas the proportion of self-employed is high, so that registration with the OAED cannot be representative for the entire labour-market. The table below shows percentages of the employed for Greece and for the whole of the Community for 1982, 1986 and 1990.

Percentage of employed workers in Greece and in the EC for 1982, 1986 and 1990

1982	49.1%	83.2%
1986	49.3%	80.8%
1990	51.7%	81.8%

Source: G. Vamvoukas in *Oikonomikos Tachydromos*, 26.3.1992, p. 28.

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This contrast demonstrates clearly the peculiarity of Greece regarding this point. The percentage of employed workers is not simply well below the Community average but also significantly below that for Spain, i.e. that of a Mediterranean country which shares certain economic features with Greece.[6]

In spite of the above, and for reasons of professional correctness, as well as for the sake of better informing the reader, we judged it sensible to present an OAED table showing the registered figures for employment and unemployment, although it does not illustrate the actual situation in the labour-market. We should also note that the representativeness of the OAED data has increased in recent years, since in 1982 the registered employed corresponded to only 42.9% of the total workforce whereas, in 1991, the figure already stood at 59.8%.

Employed and unemployed registered with OAED, for the period 1981–91 (annual average January–December)

Year					
1981	1 576 530	45 222	2.9	15 938	42 356
1982	1 590 150	50 643	3.2	17 847	39 308
1983	1 630 930	61 647	3.8	16 766	34 385
1984	1 675 510	71 216	4.3	18 214	39 014
1985	1 738 300	88 973	5.1	18 646	39 081
1986	1 804 860	110 646	6.1	17 780	41 084
1987	1 854 430	117 924	6.4	17 354	42 032
1988	1 915 580	115 260	6.0	16 078	44 216
1989	2 058 570	119 621	5.8	16 741	47 620
1990	2 205 090	140 230	6.4	18 066	48 922
1991	2 368 707	173 198	7.3	19 972	45 172

Source: OAED, monthly bulletins for labour-market movements.

These OAED data[7] refer to the annual average. It is also noted that in the monthly bulletin for labour-market movements for February 1992, the registered unemployed amounted to 219 829, as compared with 192 646 in 1991; the respective unemployment rate being 9% against 8.2% last year. Both sets of figures constitute a negative record for Greece. The only positive element in this picture is that, compared with 1991, redundancy notices fell from 12 360 to 11 999, and placements in work rose significantly from 29 880 to 33 499. It is still too early, however, to consider this element as an upturn in the labour-market.

It should also be noted that any correlation of the OAED data with those from the annual surveys of the ESYE would be scientifically arbitrary, may lead to mistaken conclusions and hinder, rather than promote an effective confrontation of the problem.

The percentage of those in employment, i.e. the proportion of the workforce in the total population, rose from 37.8% in 1981 to 39.6% in 1988.[8] On the other hand, the employment rate in the age group 14 and over fell slightly from 50.6% in 1985 to 49.7% in 1989.[9]

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1.2.6.
The proportion of women in the workforce was 29.8% in 1981, 34% in 1987 and 35.1% in 1989.[10] Conversely, their share in the unemployment total was 44.9% in 1981, 55.3% in 1987 and 61.2% in 1989, which means that women are increasingly more affected by unemployment than men.[11]

1.2.7.
Youth unemployment is a problem which has grown more acute, slowly but surely, in recent years. It is particularly notable that this trend is the opposite of the trend noted on average in the Member States of the European Community after 1985, where we can identify a fall in the share of the total by young unemployed. The following table refers to the 15-24 age group.

Share in total unemployment by the young unemployed (15–24 years), for the period 1983–90

1983	42.8	38.8
1985	42.6	38.4
1987	43.7	36.2
1988	44.3	33.5
1989	44.5	31.6
1990*	44.8	29.6

* Interim data.
Sources: ESYE labour force surveys; Eurostat, *Eurostatistics*, May 1991 in *Oikonomikos Tachydromos*, 31.10.1991.

Indeed, if we were to widen this age group so as to include up to age 29, we would find that its share of the total unemployed amounted to 59.3% in 1983 and rose to 63.8% in 1989, which corresponds to almost two thirds of the total unemployed.

1.2.8.
Unemployment length is yet another indication of the severity of this social problem. Long-term unemployment, i.e. that which lasts more than 12 months, has in recent years blighted an increasingly greater number of unemployed, as shown in the following table.

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Number and percentage of long-term unemployed 1982-90

Year	Number	%
1981	31 200	21.0
1983	100 000	33.4
1985	137 600	44.6
1987	125 800	44.0
1988	142 900	47.1
1989	138 200	46.0
1990*	137 000	48.0

* Interim data, *Oikonomikos Tachydromos*, 31.10.1991.
Source: ESYE, workforce survey, 1981-89.

If we compare certain basic Greek unemployment indices with those of the EC, the following picture emerges, as seen in the table below.

Unemployment rate, youth unemployment (15-24) and long-term unemployment in Greece and in the EC (in %)

	Unemployment		Youth unemployment		Long-term unemployment	
Year	GR	EC	GR	EC	GR	EC
1983	7.9	10.1	42.8	20.6	39.4	44.8
1984	8.2	10.8	41.2	20.7	38.0	47.3
1985	7.3	11.0	42.8	20.4	44.6	47.3
1986	7.4	10.9	43.7	20.1	44.0	52.7
1987	7.4	10.5	43.7	20.2	47.1	52.7
1988	7.7	9.7	44.3	19.5	46.0	52.1
1989	7.5	8.9	44.5	17.6	—	—
1990*	7.2	8.4	44.8	16.6	—	—
1991**	8.0	8.5	—	—	—	—

NB: Up to 1985, the EC data are for EUR 10, later data for EUR 12.
* Interim data.
** Estimates.
Sources: ESYE, workforce surveys; *Kathimerini* (newspaper), 22.11.1990; Eurostat, *Eurostatistics*, May 1991.

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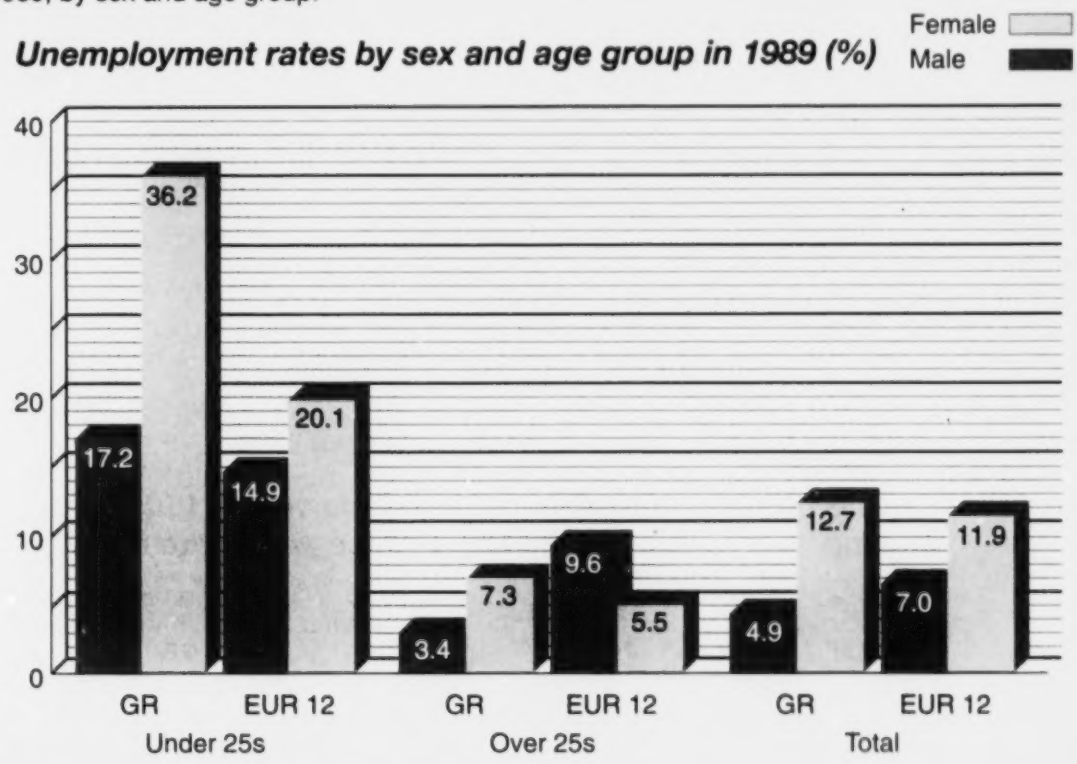
The following table shows detailed data for unemployment in EC countries for 1989, by sex and age group.



Source: Eurostat: *A social portrait of Europe, 1991.*

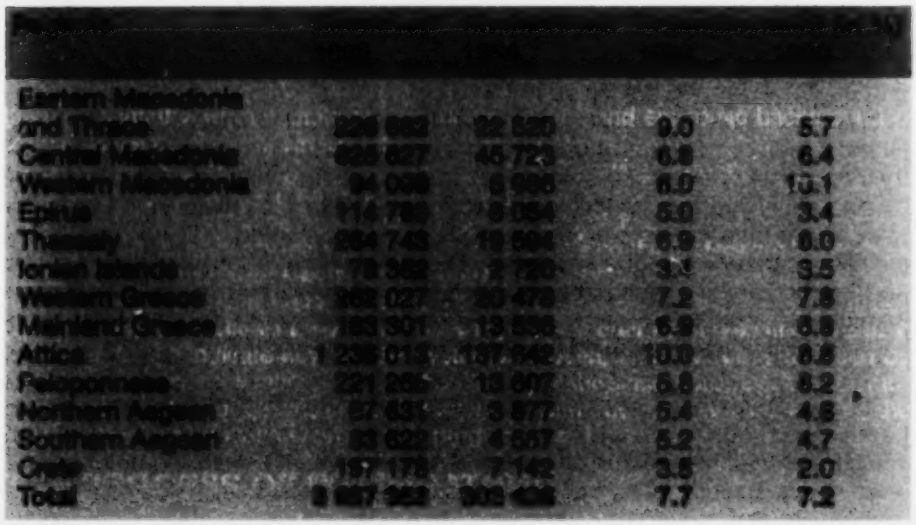
1.2.9.
In spite of the relative imprecision that may characterize the Greek data (since they came from sampling surveys and not from lists of registered unemployed, as in the other Member States), one may discern a convergence of indices with those of the EC. Such convergence may not, of course, be taken as a positive development for the country.

The table in paragraph 1.2.7 shows that the difference between the indices for total unemployment was positive, i.e. positive for Greece, up to 1988 and amounted to about 2 percentage units. Later, however, we note a continuous reduc-tion of this difference, which probably fell to barely 0.6 units in 1991. The share of long-term unemployment rose in Greece in the period from 1983 to 1988 by 13, whereas it rose in the EC by 'only' 7 percentage units. Here, however, it must be noted that the features of long-term unemployment in Greece are clearly different from other EC countries. Thus, in more industrially developed countries, one sees more frequently the so-called 'technological unemployment' which severely affects middle-aged people (40-55 years). Conversely, in Greece it is mainly the young who remain unemployed for a long time, especially after finishing their education and before finding their first job. Here, we are dealing with the so-called 'unemployment due to lack of work experience'.[12]

In July 1991, the OECD published in *Perspectives Economiques*[13] certain data which are even more negative for Greece: the unemployment rate for 1990 was 'revised' from 7.2 to 7.7%. For 1991 a rate common to Greece and for the total of the EC is estimated, of the order of 9%. Lastly, for 1992 a rate of 10% is forecast for Greece which, for the first time, will be greater than the Community average (9.3%). More recent EC estimates (October 1991) give unemployment rates for 1991 as 8.8% for Greece and 8.6% for the EC. For 1992 the forecasts are 9.25 and 9% respectively, while for 1993, 9.75 and 9.25% respectively.[14] Thus, both forecasts (i.e. the OECD's and the EC's) predict for Greece higher unemployment rates than the Community average up to 1993.

1.2.10.
The distribution by region for the unemployed and employed in the 13 regions of the country is shown in the following table.

Distribution by region of employment and of the unemployed (1988), also unemployment rate for 1988 and 1990



Eastern Macedonia and Thrace	226 662	22 520	9.0	5.7
Central Macedonia	626 627	45 723	6.8	6.4
Western Macedonia	94 038	6 986	6.9	10.1
Epirus	114 788	5 054	5.0	3.4
Thessaly	264 743	19 594	6.9	8.0
Ionian Islands	78 382	2 720	3.3	3.5
Western Greece	363 027	30 478	7.2	7.8
Mainland Greece	183 301	13 596	6.9	6.9
Attica	1 236 013	137 942	10.0	8.8
Peloponnese	221 265	18 607	6.8	8.2
Northern Aegean	57 631	3 877	5.4	4.8
Southern Aegean	83 622	4 557	5.2	4.7
Crete	157 178	7 142	3.5	2.0
Total	3 687 323	308 426	7.7	7.2

These data have been taken from a highly detailed, region-by-region analysis of the 1988 workforce survey carried out for the first time by the Ministry of Labour.[15] The above table shows, among other things, significant divergences between the different unemployment rates by region for 1988, with the lowest in Crete and the Ionian Islands (about 3.5%) and the highest in Attica (10%) and eastern Macedonia and Thrace (9%). The same breakdown shows rather important changes for 1990, some more positive and others more negative: the former mainly concern the areas of eastern Macedonia and Thrace, Epirus, Attica, northern and southern Aegean and Crete, while the latter refer to western Macedonia, Thessaly, western Greece and the Peloponnese.

In the very recent past (1991), the breakdown may possibly have changed yet again because several of the so-called 'problem enterprises', which had been established in specific areas, for example, western Macedonia, Peloponnese, etc., reduced their production either significantly or altogether. This resulted in many thousands of redundancies, so that the unemployment rates in these areas rose significantly compared with 1988 or even 1990 (relevant data are not yet available).

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1.2.11.
As regards the Greek labour-market, it would be a serious omission to leave out the migration problem, which today has taken on an entirely different and opposite form from 20 to 30 years ago. One might reliably maintain that Greece has now been transformed into a host country for migrants, who mainly come from countries in Africa and Asia and who are, to a great extent, illegal immigrants. It is not within this document's remit to discuss this problem in detail, as it is planned to publish a special report in the bulletin Trends of the European Employment Observatory (Sysdem), written by the present author jointly with Th. Papatheodosiou.

It is mentioned briefly that the number of work permits granted to aliens in 1988 was 23 912, of which 5 961 (24.9%) were granted to citizens of other EC Member States. In 1989 the permits numbered 24 686, of which 8 665 (35.1%) were granted to EC citizens.[16] However, the great body of illegal immigrants working in Greece is estimated at above 200 000[17] by the Ford report to the European Parliament. The immigrants, in order of national derivation, are: Albanians, Poles, Egyptians, Filipinos, Pakistanis, Ethiopians, Romanians, Yugoslavs, etc. Some of them consider Greece as an intermediate stop in the course of further migration (for example, the Poles to the USA), others come as seasonal workers in certain areas (for example, the Yugoslavs as agricultural workers in northern Greece), others as (illegal) industrial workers and still others commute daily from their country (for example, Bulgarians). In many cases, they are attracted by the comparatively better chances of employment and better pay (even if this is notably lower than the official minimum daily wage), improved living conditions, available consumer goods and so on. The gaps in legislation concerning aliens and, particularly, its loose implementation facilitate further the influx of illegal immigrants, resulting in many negative social side-effects, for example, tense industrial relations, increased criminality of all sorts and so on.

As for the problems of immigration, it is probable that the persistent socioeconomic conditions of the country play an important role, since they basically favour the entry of illegal foreign workers, who are usually unskilled or who have 'experience-based' skills. Such conditions are, for example:

- the labour-intensive nature still characterizing the high proportion of manual work in the Greek economy;
- the strong seasonality of basic sectors, such as tourism, agriculture and construction;
- the shortcomings of the labour-market, for example, low labour mobility, incomplete information, etc;
- the general unwillingness of Greeks or their excessive wage demands for occupations which are either arduous or monotonous (agriculture, animal rearing, quarrying, building) or for low-skilled jobs (domestic work);
- the rise in average level of education and, therefore, job expectations;
- the huge number of tiny enterprises run by the self-employed, with a strong need for assistants;

- the extent of the black economy, estimated at 35-40% of the GDP;
- an attempt by many businesses with low competitiveness to balance their books by reducing labour costs (low wages paid to illegal workers).

Illegal immigration is still fully apace: the associated problems require careful consideration and long-term solutions so that the social and political opportunities will supervene the inherent risks.

1.3. The economy

1.3.1.
In this monograph, we can present only certain basic information in order to provide the reader with an overview of the present situation. The most important is considered to be the gross domestic product (GDP) and, especially, its development over time.

Breakdown of GDP by basic sector of economy, 1970-90, in current values of production coefficients (in %)

1970	18.2	31.4	50.4
1975	18.7	30.1	51.2
1980	17.7	31.1	51.1
1982	18.4	29.1	52.5
1984	17.6	29.2	53.2
1986[1]	16.2	30.0	53.8
1988[2]	16.5	28.2	55.3
1990[3]	15.7	27.3	57.0

[1] Data up to 1986 are final.
[2] Data for 1988 are interim.
[3] Data for 1990 are estimates.
Sources: Bank of Greece: *The Greek economy*, Vol. 3, Athens 1984, pp. 187-189; ESYE, national accounts.

If we look at past figures, we note that until approximately the middle of the 1970s, the secondary sector increased its share up to 35% (1973).[18] At the time, this was correctly interpreted, it would seem, as an indication of a certain industrialization of the country, in spite of all the obvious structural and other sorts of weaknesses. On the other hand, in the 1980s, we note a recession in this sector so that it accounts for just over 27%. Conversely, the tertiary sector has shown a continuous increase up to 57%, at the cost of the other two. The primary sector receded to approximately 15% after a few perturbations.

It would be wrong to assess, however, this structural shift as a development or transition by the country to the so-called 'postindustrial era', especially following the previous 'maturation' of industry. Greece is still a very long way from being a contemporary society with a service economy. One ought, rather, to consider this process as a 'deindustrialization' of the country but this view cannot be documented further in the context of this monograph. The data in the table in paragraph 1.3.4 make it obvious that the latter assessment is more realistic.

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1.3.2.
The following table shows a breakdown of the workforce by the three basic sectors of the economy.

Breakdown of workforce into the three basic sectors of the economy (in %)

Primary	40.6	30.7	30.0	25.0
Secondary	25.6	29.0	28.6	27.9
Tertiary	33.9	40.3	41.4	47.1

Sources: CEDEFOP monograph – Vocational training in Greece, Berlin, 1985, p. 19; Fotakis, K., p. 5.

This development corresponds to the trends outlined earlier as regards the GDP, i.e. with the clear recession of employment in the primary sector, the slight recession of the secondary sector and the increase of employment in the tertiary. Comparing the structure of employment in Greece with that of the EC total, we obtain the following picture.

Comparison of the structure of employment in Greece with that of the EUR 12 for 1983 and 1988 (in %)

Primary	30.0	9.15	25.0	7.69
Secondary	28.6	35.16	27.9	32.61
Tertiary	41.4	55.69	47.1	59.90

Sources: Eurostat and ESYE, workforce surveys; Fotakis, K., p. 5.

It would not be wise to use this comparison for deeper interpretations, since it does not illustrate in any way the qualitative dimension of the matter. The only thing we can identify is that the distance (in percentage points) between Greece and the Community (EUR 12) shows a reduction in all three sectors. It would take a lengthy, laborious and highly skilled analysis to discover whether and which processes of contraction, modernization or reform took place in this or that case, supported by detailed data.

The two following tables show the structure of employment in the three basic sectors between 1981 and 1990 (EUR 12 between 1986 and 1990) as well as the same, by sex, for the years 1981 and 1990.

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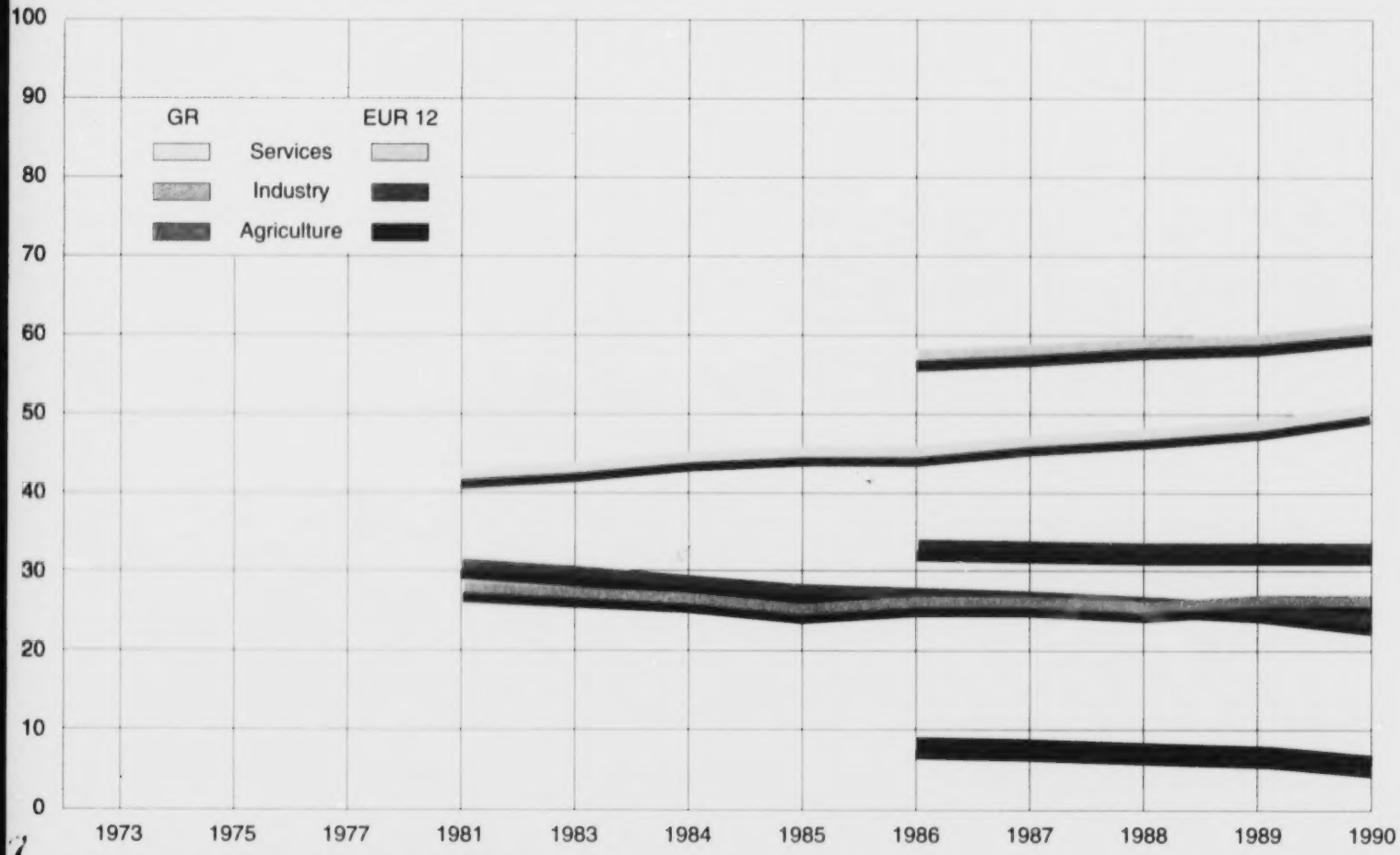
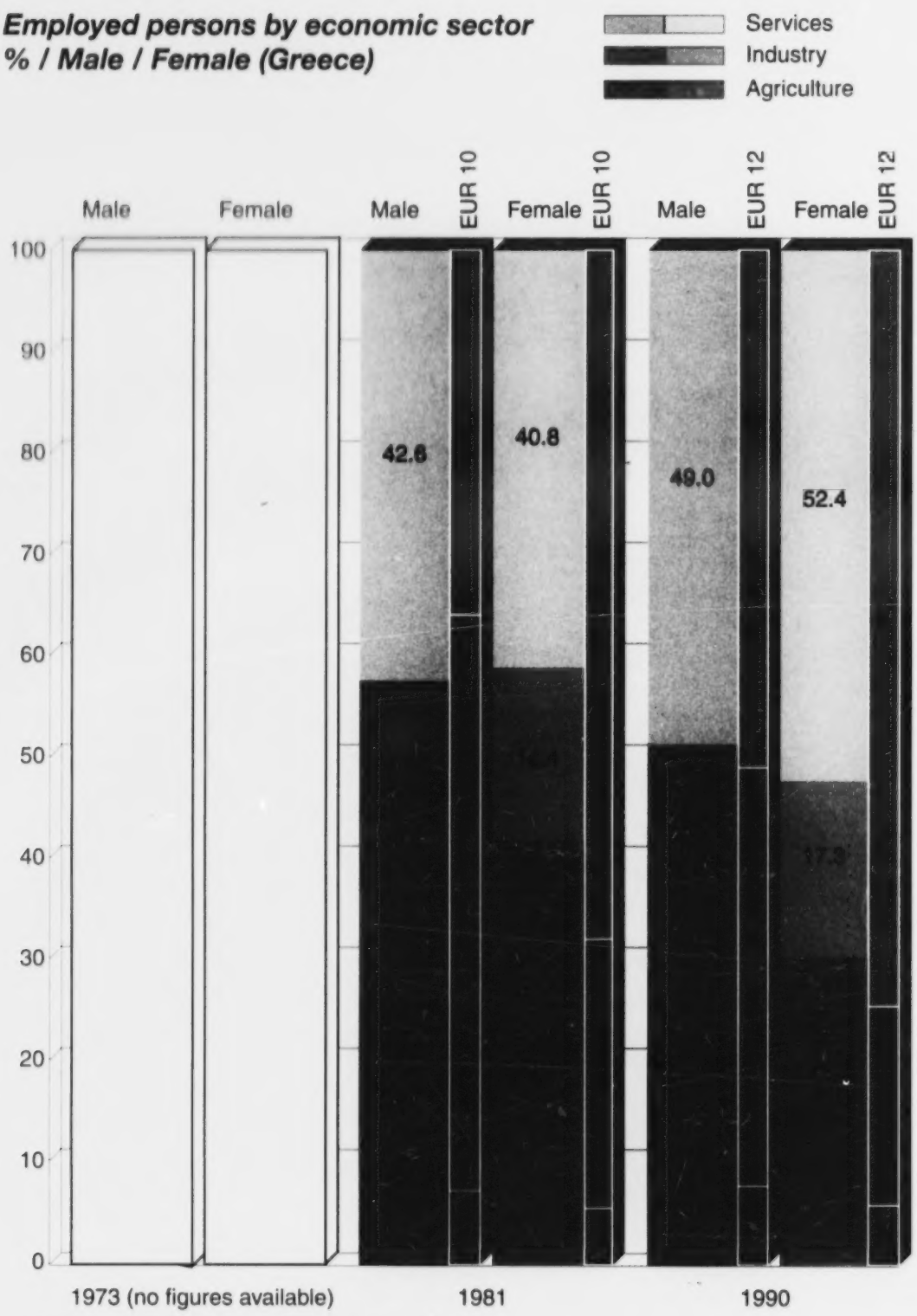
Employment by economic sector (in %) — Greece



Source: Eurostat: labour force surveys 1981–91.

Employed persons by economic sector
% / Male / Female (Greece)



Source: Eurostat: labour force survey 1991.

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1.3.3.
The table below presents a breakdown of persons employed in the 10 sectors of industry and services by broad NACE group, in the European Community for 1983, 1987 and 1990.

Persons employed by industry and services by broad NACE group (in %)

Industry					
Energy and water	2.4	2.6	2.0	1.3	1.5
Mineral extraction, chemicals	5.2	4.3	4.5	2.9	3.8
Metal manufacture, engineering	8.3	8.1	11.5	8.2	10.0
Other manufacturing industries	16.5	16.9	11.5	12.3	10.4
Building and civil engineering	11.4	9.1	7.2	6.6	7.8
Services					
Distributive trades, hotels	12.6	13.4	16.0	19.5	18.9
Transport and communication	10.7	9.8	6.4	6.7	6.9
Banking, finance, insurance	4.4	5.1	7.7	4.9	8.0
Public administration	10.6	11.9	9.7	8.4	7.6
Other services	18.2	19.8	20.9	12.7	19.7

Source: Eurostat labour force surveys 1983-90 and 1990.

NACE = General industrial classification of economic activities in the European Communities.

1.3.4.
Turning again to Greece, it appears that the trend of the industrial production index confirms the assessment mentioned earlier concerning the deindustrialization of the country.

Trend of the industrial production index from 1980 to 1990 (Base year 1980 =100)

100	100.7	98.6	97.1	98.4	101	100.3	96.3	103.2	105	102.9

Source: Oikonomikos Tachydromos, 25.4.1991, p. 178.

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The average annual growth of GDP over the same period was 1.6%. The Planning and Economic Studies Centre (KEPE) designed and developed the following scenarios for the actual increase of GDP:[19]

- For 1990, it suggested a 1.2% growth, although the official estimates for that year are –0.4% and the OECD estimates a minimum growth of 0.1%.
- For 1991, KEPE forecast a growth of 1.7%, while the OECD has a figure of only 0.3%.
- For 1992, KEPE was very optimistic in forecasting a 3.9% growth, while the OECD figure was only 1.4%.

1.3.5.
For the total of the period 1990-94, KEPE forecast an actual annual growth of the order of 3.7%. This obviously superoptimistic view is due to KEPE's 'work hypothesis', according to which the national budget will implement in 1990 and 1991 the officially announced 'limiting policy' which, amongst other things, includes a reduction of national deficits. It has, however, been verified that the national budget deficit increased in both 1990 and 1991. From DR 1 758 million in 1989, it rose to 2 152 million in 1990 and to 2 722 million in 1991. In percentage terms, these deficits of the GDP correspond to 19.9, 20.6 and 21.6% respectively.[20]

1.3.6.
Direct and indirect State influence or intervention in the Greek economy overall increased in recent years and is now estimated to be about 60%. OECD data give the total of State expenditure during 1990 as corresponding to 53.9% of the GDP. The average in other Member States of OECD was 40.5% for the same year, while in European countries it was 48.6%.[21] If one takes employment in the public sector as the yardstick of such influence, then Greece clearly occupies the top position in the Community. With the exception of Denmark (29.8%), the proportion of those employed in the wider public sector in Greece came to 24.7% in 1989; in France, it was 22.8%; in the United Kingdom, 19.9%; in Germany, 15.5%; in Spain, 13.9% and in Portugal, 13.5%.[22]

1.3.7.
Turning to the average per capita income for the EC as a whole, which is used below as the base value of 100%, a comparison with that of Greece shows that, in recent years, there has been a continuous divergence from, rather than convergence to, the Community average by Greece.

Per capita income in Greece as a percentage of the EUR 12 average (= 100)

%	57.4	56.8	55.8	54.2	54.3	54.1	53.4	52.8

Source: European Commission, cited in *Oikonomikos Tachydromos*, 30.5.1991, p. 88.

The figure for 1991 is an estimate. For 1992, a further fall is forecast in the relationship to the Community average, to 52.4%. This deterioration is even more disturbing because, over the period 1985-90, Spain improved its position from 71.8 to 76.7%, Portugal from 52.1 to 56.2% and Ireland from 65.2 to 68.8%.

1.3.8.
Public discussion in the last two years has revealed certain indications regarding an economic crisis and, taking into account the relevant studies, we may outline it as follows.

- As well as the deindustrialization mentioned above, a rise in the agricultural deficit has been identified. Thus, for example, imports of foodstuffs, drinks and tobacco rose from 21.1% (of all imports) in 1981, which was the year Greece joined the EC, to 34.4% in 1985.[23]

- The expansion of the tertiary sector was not due to any great extent to the opening up of new areas of activity, such as the supply of modern services, etc. but was rather the result of a growth in the wider public sector (the share of which in total employment rose from 17.0% in 1981 to 24.7% in 1989), as well as reaching saturation in many occupations, together with an extension of so-called 'parasitic' economic activity. This term usually means those intermedi-ary activities which are basically unnecessary but at the same time in demand because many elementary State functions are carried out either incompletely or with great delay.

- Another critical problem facing the Greek economy is the high rate of inflation throughout the last 20 years. From 1981 to 1991, the annual rate of inflation lay between 14 and 25%. The relationship of this figure to the respective EC average is even more significant: it deteriorated from 1.98 in 1981 to 3.78 in 1991 (having, meanwhile, achieved a negative record of 6.0 in 1986 and 4.82 in 1987).[24]

- The trade deficit doubled from USD 6.69 billion in 1981 to USD 12.31 billion in 1991. On the other hand, the trend in the current balance of payments is less of a problem. The relevant deficit rose from USD 2.2 billion to USD 3.56 billion in 1990 but later fell to USD 1.46 billion in 1991. A particularly positive effect here was that of the financial injection from the EC, which rose from USD 2.6 billion in 1989 to USD 2.9 billion in 1990 and USD 4.03 billion in 1991.[25]

1.3.9.

Underlying these very general and briefly expressed structural and qualitative weaknesses of the Greek economy is a substantial problem: that of a low (and continually shrinking) competitiveness which, in view of the completion of the single market, may turn into a problem affecting the very existence of a significant part of the Greek economy. This problem, by general consensus, consists in, not so much the lack of capital, machinery or raw materials, as in the qualitative and quantitative inadequacy of human resources, especially as regards middle management and, specifically, in the production sector itself. Issues such as, for example, 'industrial work ethic and discipline', contemporary working conditions and industrial relations, the establishment and maintenance of specifications for quality, production, etc., are directly related to this situation. If we stop to think of the low birth rate forecast and the relevant levelling out and ageing of the population, we may conclude that, as human resources in Greece decrease, the quality of this workforce will become of vital importance. Faced with the (at least quantitative) superabundance of tertiary education graduates, who more than cover the socioeconomic needs of the country, all interested parties should concentrate their attention and the strength of their efforts on improving the altogether underdeveloped vocational education and training provided.

2.1. The evolution of vocational education

2.1.1.
In the postwar period, the following laws and decrees decisively influenced vocational education:

- Decree 3971/1959 on technical and vocational education, organization of secondary education and management of education.
- Decree 3973/1959 on integration and coordination of the management of vocational education.
- Decree 580/1970 on supervisory, educational, assistant laboratory, administrative and assistant personnel of lower and intermediate vocational schools and on certain organizational provisions.
- Decree 581/1970 on the management of a teacher-training college for technical and vocational education (Selete).
- Decree 652/1970 on higher technical educational centres.
- Decree 789/1970 on the organization of a teacher-training college for technical and vocational education.
- Law 309/1976 on the organization and management of general education.
- Law 576/1977 on the organization and management of intermediate and higher technical and vocational education.
- Law 1304/1982 on scientific-pedagogical guidance and management in general and intermediate technical-vocational education and other provisions.
- Law 1404/1983 on structure and operation of technological educational institutes.
- Law 1566/1985 on structure and operation of primary and secondary education and other provisions.
- Law 1836/1989 on promotion of employment and vocational training and other provisions.
- Law 2009/1992 on a national system for vocational education and training and other provisions.

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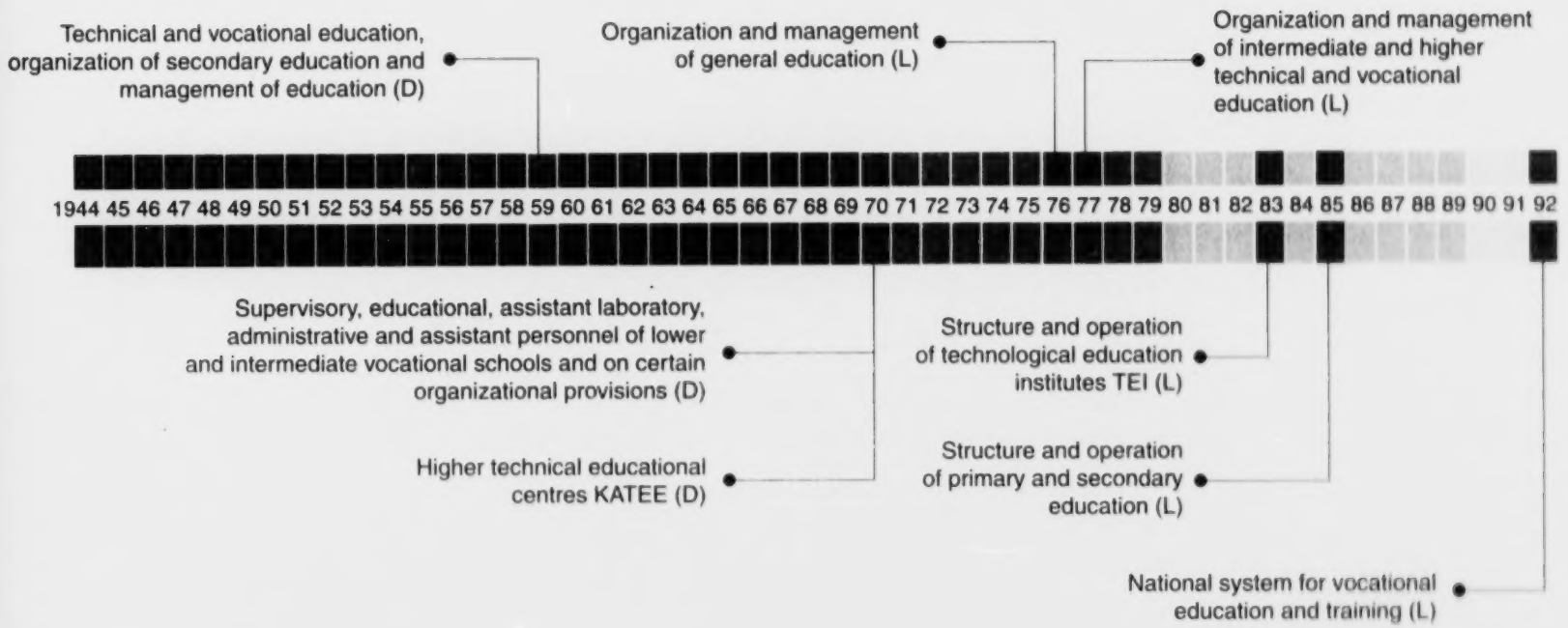
Evolution of the training system in Greece


Technical and vocational education, organization of secondary education and management of education (D)
Organization and management of general education (L)
Organization and management of intermediate and higher technical and vocational education (L)
1944 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60 61 62 63 64 65 66 67 68 69 70 71 72 73 74 75 76 77 78 79 80 81 82 83 84 85 86 87 88 89 90 91 92
Supervisory, educational, assistant laboratory, administrative and assistant personnel of lower and intermediate vocational schools and on certain organizational provisions (D)
Structure and operation of technological education institutes TEI (L)
Higher technical educational centres KATEE (D)
Structure and operation of primary and secondary education (L)
National system for vocational education and training (L)

L = Law
D = Decree

2.1.2.
Next, we set out a few observations on the basic characteristics of the Greek educational system, with particular attention to vocational education, as they developed over time. Following the foundation of the new Greek State in the first half of the 19th century, an educational system was formed with classical-humanistic culture as its dominant feature. In spite of the repeated many-sided initiatives to create a contemporary and effective vocational education system which would meet pressing and extensive developmental needs, the government only managed in 1959 to reach an overall legislative regulation of the matter (with Decrees 3971 and 3973).

At that time, compulsory education lasted six years, ending at age 12, with the primary school leaving certificate. The 'gymnasion' of that time covered the entire span of secondary education and mainly acted as a passage towards higher education. Those young people who did not wish to continue with general education, i.e. a further six years at the gymnasion, had three possibilities for vocational education open to them:

- Lower technical-vocational schools, where studies lasted from one to four years, from which they would leave as 'skilled technicians'.

- Intermediate technical-vocational schools, studies at which normally lasted three years, where the aim was to leave as 'foremen'. A requirement for entry to these schools was attendance at the first three years of gymnasion with a satisfactory leaving certificate at the end of the third year.

- The third possibility, after age 14, was to enrol in the apprenticeship schools of the OAED, founded in 1953 and providing an informal vocational training, following the model of the German 'dual system'. This operated as a form of sandwich course, whereby the young people worked in businesses in the morning and spent the afternoon in theory classes, as well as in laboratory practicals at apprenticeship centres.[26]

These alternative openings altogether constituted a subsystem within an educational system which was clearly vertically differentiated. In other words, every young person who, at that time, opted for vocational education had an infinitesimal chance of going to university in the future, even if he discovered the respective aptitude later, i.e. with a certain time lag.

2.1.3.
It is now an indisputable historical fact that, in the first years at least, following enactment of the above laws concerning vocational education, the State services responsible did not work at all effectively or satisfactorily in this matter. The provision of public vocational education programmes could not meet even the least demands qualitatively or from the point of view of extent and variety. It is, therefore, not surprising that vocational education did not manage to develop into a genuine, equivalent alternative to general education, even after a long starting period. On account of these weaknesses and in the absence of flexible horizontal mobility to and from general education, vocational education ended up operating as an 'opening for lack of anything better' for all the young men and women who, for various reasons, abandoned, too soon, the way to post-gymnasion university education.

At the same time, vocational education served as a mechanism for social distinctions, in the sense that pupils from higher social strata accounted for a much greater proportion in general education than in the population as a whole and the same was true for pupils of 'lower' social strata in technical vocational education.

2.1.4.
The low glamour and appeal of vocational education amongst the young was reflected for many years both by the static numbers of students in the respective schools, as well as by their percentage over the total of students in secondary education. In the 1970s this percentage, at best, reached 20%.[27]

Even during the first half of the 1980s, the tendency to stay in general education and go on to university remained powerful, although the reforms of 1976 and 1977 had already taken place: compulsory education had been increased to nine years, new types of vocational school had been created and a certain horizontal mobility had been established in the second cycle of secondary education. The share by vocational education pupils in the total of pupils in the second cycle of secondary education rose to 28.5% but only temporarily, as shown in the following table.

Total number of pupils enrolled in the second cycle of secondary education

School year	General division (GEL)	Technical/ Vocational division (TEL)	Technical/ Vocational schools (TVS)	Total
1980/81	210 807 (74.5%)	47 700 (16.9%)	24 416 (8.6%)	283 023
1981/82	222 492 (71.5%)	66 185 (21.2%)	22 678 (7.3%)	311 355
1982/83	241 147 (71.3%)	78 080 (23.0%)	18 932 (5.7%)	338 159
1983/84	253 000 (73.3%)	76 354 (22.1%)	15 638 (4.6%)	344 992
1984/85	260 498 (74.4%)	72 709 (20.8%)	17 024 (4.8%)	350 231

Source: CEDEFOP monograph, 1985, p. 42.

2.1.5.
This historical review would be incomplete without some mention of the part played by private-sector initiative. As the State was in no position to develop and operate an effective vocational education system, it allowed private agencies to be active in this sphere. So the 1950s saw an increase in private technical-vocational schools, which rose further in the 1960s, with the result that in the 1970s they dominated the field. During that period about 75% of all technical-vocational pupils attended private schools (see following table).

However, due to the excessive, short-sighted and short-term profit-seeking by many private headmasters, these schools, with very few exceptions, did not manage to offer young people an attractive alternative solution to secondary education as regards the variety or content of the programmes and studies offered or laboratory equipment provided. Public opinion, therefore, settled definitely and irrevocably for a negative image of the newly created edifice of vocational education.

All the foregoing, together with the traditional and deeply rooted popular perception that intellectual work (and, therefore, general and university education) guarantees much greater social recognition and financial success than does manual work (and, therefore, vocational education), meant that it was natural for these schools to fail to attract a substantial number of pupils to vocational education.

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2.1.6.
After 1970, though, private vocational education began to lose ground. The cumulative dissatisfaction of public opinion could be expressed freely after 1974,

i.e., after the restoration of democracy. As the private vocational schools occupied a prominent place, public opinion almost naturally 'blamed' them as responsible for the misfortunes of the whole system and demanded a strict confrontation with, or even abolition of, these schools. The governments which came to power after 1974 left it to be understood implicitly that they would respond to this demand in one way or another. Although nothing of the sort happened in the end, the private agencies read the signs and took them seriously, so that they increasingly limited their activities. A corresponding increase was noted in the number of pupils attending State-run vocational schools: their share in the total of pupils rose from 24.6% in 1970 to 62.5% in 1976, as shown in the following table.

Secondary education pupils in vocational schools

School year	Total number	Of which: State-run	Private
1970/71	93 807	22 961 (24.5%)	70 466 (75.4%)
1971/72	112 311	44 114 (39.3%)	68 197 (60.7%)
1972/73	123 081	51 388 (41.8%)	71 693 (58.2%)
1973/74	133 361	61 167 (45.9%)	72 194 (54.1%)
1974/75	134 117	67 590 (50.4%)	66 527 (49.6%)
1975/76	132 891	71 948 (54.2%)	60 743 (45.8%)
1976/77	131 521	82 243 (62.5%)	49 278 (37.5%)

Source: CEDEFOP monograph, 1985, p. 89.

The percentage of pupils in State-run vocational schools in fact increased even more up to 1981, reaching 85.3%.[28] The role played by private schools has since remained marginal, at least as regards their share of pupils. From 1986 to 1990, the proportion of pupils in State-run TELs varied between 90.1 and 94.7%; the respective figures in the TESs varying from 79.9 to 90.3%.[29] Thus, over the period of a few years, the State changed from a 'supporting actor' to the 'leading role' in vocational education. In reality, however, all it achieved was to cover the quantitative gaps left by the retreat of the private sector. The clearly ineffectual and cumbersome State bureaucracy could not, as regards this effort, design and certainly not implement any qualitative improvements. This view is confirmed by the rough and ready solutions, inadequacies and delays which marked the implementation of the 1976 and 1977 reforms.

In view of the above, it has not proved possible, 20 years after the enactment of the relevant laws, to cover the enormous socioeconomic needs of Greece by creating a qualitatively adequate workforce either for the production sector or for agriculture and the services. So, the country continues to miss the valuable, well-trained 'middle management', which is of vital importance for any economy wishing to develop and improve its performance.

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2.1.7.

Confronted with this situation and also by the fact that the university gates were increasingly besieged and, at the same time, the number of Greeks wishing to study abroad was rising, the government felt obliged to react. In 1976 and 1977, two reforms took place in secondary education aiming at important structural-organizational, as well as indirect qualitative, changes.

Following the 1975 Article 16 of the Constitution, according to which 'compulsory education may not last less than nine years', the government first created the integrated three-year gymnasion. This was a continuation of the six-year primary school and also constituted the first cycle of secondary education.

Beyond that, it created the three-year 'lykeion', with different direction, which constituted the greater part of the second cycle of secondary education (Law 309/1976). Next, came Law 576/1977 which achieved, amongst other things, the following modifications:

- lower vocational schools were abolished and replaced by technical vocational schools (TES), attendance at which lasted one or two years;
- intermediate vocational schools were replaced by technical vocational lykeions (TEL), with three-year attendance;
- General education was, from this point on, provided mainly by the general lykeions (GEL), also of three-year attendance.

So, gymnasion leavers now had the option of either enrolling without examination in the TESs or entering, after examination, the TELs or the GELs. In addition, they were offered the possibility of entering the OAED's apprenticeship schools.

2.1.8.
With regard to guiding pupil flows towards either of the two basic directions 'general or vocational education', the central rationale of these laws consisted of intervention by State selection mechanisms (in the form of entrance exams for the lykeions), so that in the medium and long term an increasing number would be channelled into vocational education. Government officials recognized at the time that, through such selection mechanisms, especially within the lykeions themselves, the covert aim of legislation was continuously to reduce pupil flows to the general lykeions. In this way, university entrance examinations would one day become redundant, precisely because selection would have taken place at an earlier stage.

It is highly debatable whether and how far such a view is correct. Here, we would simply note that (without in any way doubting the benefit of examinations or selection) a predated selection process may possibly deny some pupils the likelihood of unanticipated improvement in cases where they are late developers.

For the sake of fairness and objectivity, however, an important innovation made by the law should be mentioned, i.e. the creation of some horizontal paths between different types of schools of the second cycle of secondary education. These paths increased pupil mobility, by offering an opportunity to revise and correct relatively easily any earlier wrong choices, made after the gymnasion and concerning long-term educational prospects, without wasting much time or gaining 'redundant knowledge'. This also served to break down, to a large degree, the 'watertight' separation between general and vocational education, since which time, the latter freed itself of its bad reputation as a 'second class one-way system'.

2.1.9.
In 1981, the socialist party PASOK followed the conservative New Democracy party to power. This meant important structural and operational changes to education policy in certain spheres. To start with, these concerned tertiary education, mainly through the framework Law 1268/1982 on higher education establishments (AEI) and on the conversion of the higher technical-vocational education centres (KATEEs) into technical education institutes (TEI), which had the ambition of providing a qualitatively better and socially more acceptable education than the older KATEEs (Law 1404/1983). The basic structures of secondary education remained unchanged, with two important exceptions:

- The then extant selection procedure changed radically: in 1982, entry exams for the lykeion were abolished. Since that time, every young person has been able freely to decide in what type of school they wish to continue. This was a very important change to the selection procedures which had prevailed up to that time.

- An equally significant change may be the recognition, in 1985, of the OAED apprenticeship as formal education, since which time those graduating from it can join the second cycle of secondary education, graduate from it and continue their studies.

2.1.10.
An important reform in secondary education was the creation of a new kind of lykeion, the 'Integral multidiscipline lykeion' (EPL), as part of the effort to apply experimentally the educational concept of the integrated school. This was an attempt to use many-sided and flexible programmes aiming at a 'real equivalence' and 'two-way communication' between general and vocational education, as well as at improvement in the content of study and a better utilization of the pupils' different tendencies, abilities and interests.

2.1.11.
The period 1977-82 is too short to enable us to reach documented conclusions regarding the effects of the 1976 and 1977 reforms. The statistics of pupil share by different kinds of schools of the second cycle of secondary education do, of course, show a rise in the proportion of students in vocational education to 26% towards the middle of the 1980s. It would, however, be pointless to link this rise with the new selection and examination procedures after 1982 because the relevant share was 25% in 1981/82, retreated during the two following years and rose again in 1984/85 to 25.6%. It would seem, then, that the abolition of lykeion entrance exams after 1982 did not cause any dramatic reduction of pupil flows towards vocational education. It is a fact, however, that even this slightly increased percentage figure (26%), compared to the 1970s, is to be considered totally inadequate at national level.

Clearly, more time is needed, alongside consistent and laborious research efforts, in order to identify whether and to what degree the abolition of centralized administrative mechanisms for selection, together with other factors (advice, careers guidance, more rationalized selection of young people based on apparent labour-market conditions, etc.) is sufficient to dissolve the suspicions of vocational education and make it truly equivalent to general education. If this were really to happen, it would mean that the pupils' choice of vocational education meant a conscious and deliberate decision.

Yet, pupil flow to tertiary education remains unabated. The number of candidates applying to AEIs and TEIs in 1990 amounted to about 125 000. This roughly corresponds to 1984 levels. In the mean time, a record number of 150 000 applications was reached in 1987. On the other hand, the number of entrants to AEIs and TEIs steadily fell from 51 000 in 1984 to 42 000 in 1990. Therefore, the ratio between candidates and entrants is about 3:1. A further proof of the persistence of the young wanting to enter tertiary education is the fact that, in 1990, 38% of candidates were repeating the entrance exams, i.e. they had previously attempted to enter AEIs and TEIs.[30]

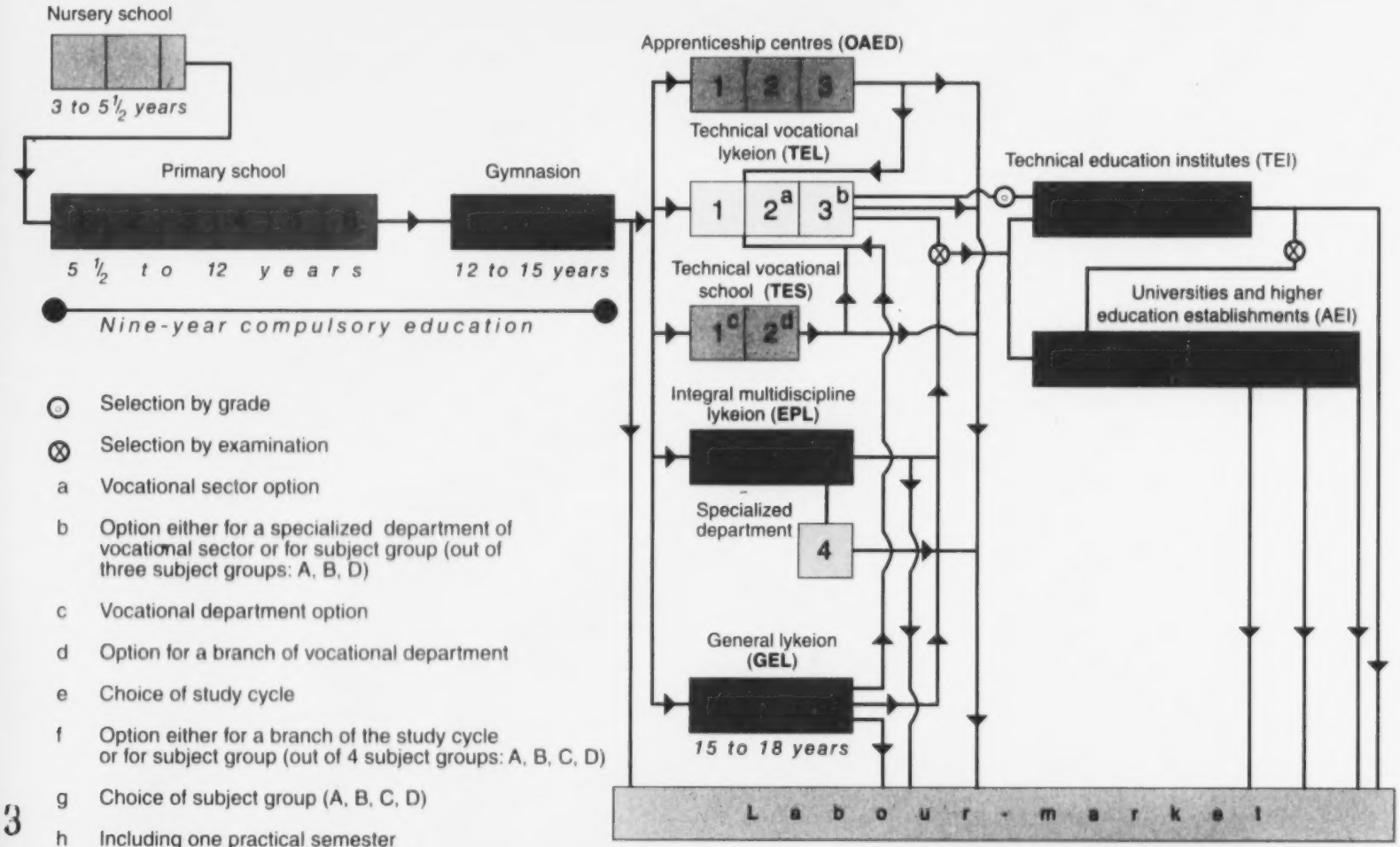
2.2. Schooling and initial vocational education

Background

2.2.1.
The structure and operation of the Greek educational system, more especially that of vocational education, has remained unaltered since 1985. Thus, 15 year-olds, who have completed their compulsory education, i.e. finished the gymnasion, may freely decide concerning their future career. They are offered two categories of fundamental openings: (a) general or vocational education and (b) formal or informal vocational education. The term formal describes any type of education which is completed with the acquisition of a diploma recognized by the State and enabling the holder to continue his studies at a higher level or towards a further established title. The term informal refers to all education or training courses which do not have the abovementioned features. Some of these, though, provide qualifications well sought after in the labour-market, so confirming a *de facto* (rather than *de jure*) recognition of the knowledge acquired.

As regards the first category, young people have, on the one hand, the possibility of continuing in the general (GEL) or the integral multidiscipline lykeions (EPL), albeit that the latter only partially belong in general education. Access to GELs and EPLs is free for young people in the respective school catchment area. However, because the EPLs are, in a way, 'experimental' and are very few in number (25 in the whole country), the following entrance procedure applies. In the first place, each EPL accepts all applicants who have graduated from gymnasions within the EPL's catchment area. Next, if there are still vacancies at that EPL, entry is possible for young applicants from a wider geographic area. If the number of applicants exceeds the number of vacancies, the entrants' names are drawn by lot.

Overview of the structure of education and training in Greece


Nursery school
3 to 5½ years
Primary school
5 ½ to 12 years
Gymnasion
12 to 15 years
Nine-year compulsory education
Apprenticeship centres (OAED)
1 2 3
Technical vocational lykeion (TEL)
1 2a 3b
Technical vocational school (TES)
1c 2d
Integral multidiscipline lykeion (EPL)
Specialized department
4
General lykeion (GEL)
15 to 18 years
Technical education institutes (TEI)
Universities and higher education establishments (AEI)
Labour-market
Selection by grade
Selection by examination
a Vocational sector option
b Option either for a specialized department of vocational sector or for subject group (out of three subject groups: A, B, D)
c Vocational department option
d Option for a branch of vocational department
e Choice of study cycle
f Option either for a branch of the study cycle or for subject group (out of 4 subject groups: A, B, C, D)
g Choice of subject group (A, B, C, D)
h Including one practical semester

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The general lykeion (GEL)

2.2.2.

This type of school aims at completing the general education of young people, most of whom intend to go on to tertiary education at a later stage. The lykeion accepts gymnasion graduates up to 18 years of age and, for those over 18, there are the evening lykeions, where the term of study lasts four years.

At the end of the first two years, the pupils take examinations in all subjects, except for physical education and careers guidance, in order to go up a class. In the third year which is, in the main, a foundation course for later studies, they follow general subjects, which are taught to all pupils in common, as well as special subjects, corresponding to one of four 'subject groups', which may be chosen by the pupil. These 'subject groups' correspond to four related categories of studies in tertiary education, i.e.:

(i) mathematics, physics, architecture, all branches of engineering, etc.;
(ii) medicine, dentistry, veterinary science, etc.;
(iii) literature, history, education studies, etc.;
(iv) politics, governmental sciences, etc.;

Pupils who are not interested in continuing into tertiary education, at the end of the third GEL year take final examinations for graduating from the lykeion. Their success in these exams, however, does not qualify them for entry into tertiary education.

GEL graduates are basically offered the following options:

(a) If they are successful in the 'general exam' for entry to a AEI or a TEI, they may begin their studies in the department of their first choice, provided that the total units achieved cover the 'basic pass mark' set by the Ministry of Education.

(b) If they pass the 'general exam' but do not achieve entry to the department of their first choice, they may take this exam repeatedly until they achieve their wishes.

(c) They may take special entrance exams for entry into tertiary education foundations which lie outside the 'general exam' system, for example, higher schools of art, the higher school of drama and cinema studies, singing academies, higher schools for officers of the firefighting service, the police, etc.

(d) They may enter the labour-market directly.

The integral multidiscipline lykeion (EPL)

2.2.3.
As already mentioned, the EPL aims at a certain equivalence and two-way mobility between general and vocational education. It is also intended to improve qualitatively the education provided so that the different inclinations, skills and interests of every pupil will be better deployed than in the 'conventional' types of school. The EPL's aims are, among others, the following:[31]

(i) To provide an organizational link between general and vocational education, so enabling the pupils to combine theory and practice. Beyond this, the EPL should contribute to overcoming the prejudice which undervalues manual work by promoting the integration of intellectual and practical work in parallel.

(ii) To provide the pupils with their cultural heritage and national traditions, especially those of democracy, freedom, social justice and peace.

(iii) To provide pupils with contemporary, scientific and technical knowledge, whether general or specialized and, above all, with the methodology of its acquisition, so as to enable them to follow the rapid technical changes and corresponding developments in the world of work.

(iv) To achieve a better relationship between school and the external community and help the pupils acquire an overall concept of socioeconomic, cultural and other developments, so they can monitor these with unbiased judgment, while actively participating in them.

(v) To contribute to consciousness-raising among the students, by participation in the school community within a climate of democratic organization and functioning, concerning the need for equally valued and responsible cooperation with fellow citizens in society generally.

(vi) To provide pupils with the possibility of moving between study cycles without any qualitative loss in their education.

The basic structure of the EPL as regards grouping and division of subjects is as follows:

The first year is integrated for all pupils. From a total of 34 teaching hours weekly, 31 concern subjects done in common, while the remaining three are devoted to the 'subject options', for example, agriculture and development, biotechnology, elements of law and human organizations. At the end of the first year the student chooses a 'cycle of studies' as a starting point for a respective category of related occupations. This choice, however, does not prejudice his later level of studies, nor the future grade in the occupation concerned.

The second year is divided into the following study cycles:

- Society and the individual;
- Health, natural science, and social welfare;
- Economics and management;

- Engineering technology;
- Electrical and electronic technology;
- Chemical technology and technology of primary production.

Each student may opt for the cycle that interests him the most and he is not bound by the subjects he chose in the first year. From the total of 34 teaching hours per week, 16 are intended for subjects done in common, another 16 for the subjects of the chosen cycle and two for lessons of the student's choice. The student decides at the end of the second year how he wishes to proceed, but the choice of study cycles has already restricted the possibilities available.

The third year is divided into 17 branches. Four of these correspond to the abovementioned four subject groups and, in the main, prepare the student for tertiary education. The remaining 13 branches take the form of foundation courses and are:

- Administration and secretarial
- Librarianship
- Information science
- Medical laboratory work
- Social welfare
- Economics
- Applied arts
- Construction
- Mechanical engineering
- Electrical work
- Electronics
- Chemistry
- Agricultural science

Out of the total of 34 teaching hours weekly, 14 cover subjects done in common and up to 20 hours cover branch subjects. The student's choice of branch is made at the end of the second year and is, in principle, predetermined by the cycle chosen during the previous year. At the beginning of the second and the third year, the student may reconsider his earlier choices concerning cycles and branches but only up to a point and in a way that will not adversely affect his own training nor the level of the cycle into which he proposes to move. The third year is followed by the subjects and specialization departments, from within which the student may acquire a vocational diploma.

The multichoice nature of the EPL does not only reside in the range of subjects offered and options for horizontal mobility of the students between various cycles and branches but also in the fact that it offers two basic alternative openings to the third year pupils: to opt either for a subject group which will later lead to tertiary education or for a branch which takes the form of vocational preparation. The detailed courses of the third year are differentiated accordingly.

Those EPL graduates who aim to go on to university and had, therefore, chosen the appropriate subject group, from this point on have the following options:

(a) If they pass the national general exam for entry to tertiary education, i.e. to an AEI or a TEI, they may be admitted under the same conditions as those graduating from the GELs.

(b) If they pass these exams but only satisfy the bare minimum for the department of their first choice, they may repeat the exams in subsequent years until they succeed.

(c) They may take special entrance exams for entry to tertiary education establishments which lie outside the national general exam system, for example, higher schools of art, higher schools of drama or film studies, singing academies, schools for officers of the firefighting service or the police, etc.

(d) They may enrol in a foundation course branch of the third year of the lykeion, corresponding to the cycle of studies they had chosen in the second year. There, they will be limited to taking only the specific subjects of the chosen branch and may finish the EPL with a diploma which will not essentially fit them for a specific occupation but is more in the nature of a basic vocational education. This is due to the fact that the qualifications gained there are not enough to start a skilled and specialized occupation but the acquisition of some further skills is needed, which will be mentioned below (see point (a)).

(e) They may join the labour-market without any specialized skill.

Those EPL graduates who had opted for a branch vocational foundation course have the following alternative options:

(a) They may attend the specialized department which corresponds to their chosen branch and so gain an occupational title.

(b) Some of them may claim direct entry (without exam) into a TEI, based on their (high) grades.

(c) They may take the specific entrance exams for one of the tertiary education establishments which lie outside the national 'general exam' system, for example, higher schools of art, higher schools of drama and film studies, singing academies, higher schools for firefighters or police officers, etc.

(d) They may enter the labour-market directly, equipped with their pre-vocational education.

The EPL is, generally speaking, an attractive kind of school because it offers the students alternative educational possibilities, it is much better equipped than other lykeions, it has a better trained teaching staff and operates basically as a full day school, rather than operating in shifts, as is the case for many other types of school. However, as already mentioned, the EPLs operate as experimental schools and it is not anticipated that they will be established in the foreseeable future as the typical school of the second cycle of secondary education. During the academic year 1990/91 there were 25 State-run EPLs in the whole country, with a total of 20 347 students, of whom 10 598 (52.1%) were girls.[32]

The next two types of school, technical vocational schools (TES) and technical vocational lykeions (TEL), in the main, aim to provide specific vocational qualifications for young men and women. TESs, TELs, GELs and EPLs constitute a loose overall system, in the sense that they afford some limited possibilities for horizontal mobility of students across all four of these types of school.

2.2.4.
These aim to consolidate the knowledge acquired by the pupils in the gymnasion and enable them to practise a specific skilled occupation. These schools comprise 14 skill groups (or departments), in which a total of 28 specialities are in operation. The specialities are divided into the following groups or departments:

- Mechanical
- Electrical
- Electronic
- Building and construction
- Agriculture and stock rearing
- Sewing and domestic science
- Handicrafts
- Office, shop and store staff
- Occupations in tourism
- Silver- and goldsmithing and watchmaking
- Leather processing
- Hairdressing
- Mining and quarrying
- Assistants in spinning and textiles

From an administrative and organizational viewpoint, the TESs, together with the TELs, which we shall mention later, used to make up the vocational and technical education centres (KETEKs). The KETEKs were later replaced by the schools laboratory centres (SEK), see paragraph 3.1.2.

The TES courses normally last two years, except for the evening classes created for young workers, which last three years.

In the first year, pupils select an occupational group (or department), while in the second year, they choose a specialized direction from the same group or department. General education subjects represent about 20% of teaching, through six teaching hours per week, whereas specialization subjects represent about 80% of total teaching time, with approximately 24 hours. Practicals take place in appropriately equipped laboratories within the school. TES graduates may either practise an occupation relevant to the specialization they studied or enrol in the second year of the TELs, directly without examination.

Number of TESs, of pupils, departments and specialities 1981–90

School year	TES	Pupils	Departments	Specialities
1981/82	146	11 863	12	23
1982/83	149	9 551	12	23
1983/84	115	9 589	14	31
1984/85	110	11 815	11	27
1985/86	110	13 132	11	27
1986/87	116	14 291	11	31
1987/88	116	16 031	11	31
1988/89	167	16 413	11	31
1989/90	197	16 743	11	31
1990/91	198	18 091	11	31

Source: Ministry of Education, unpublished data.

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The proportion of girls in these schools is low — in the school year 1990/91 it was just 16.6%.[33]

It should be noted that the variations in the number of specialities are a common phenomenon because they are more or less due to the corresponding variations in demand by the pupils.

In 1990/91, the following departments and specialities showed the greatest demand:

- Mechanical, with three specialities, broken down into:
  2 175 students in car mechanics,
  676 students in refrigeration installation,
  509 students in tooling machines.

- Electrical, with two specialities, broken down into:
  1 189 students in interior electrical systems,
  1 334 students in car electricals.

- Electronics, with one speciality:
  679 students in radio and television.

Source: Ministry of Education, unpublished data.

According to information from the appropriate directorate of the Ministry of Education, these student priorities remain relatively stable over time.

Technical vocational lykeions (TEL)

2.2.5.
TELs provide pupils with general education beyond that of the gymnasion and, at the same time, equip them with technical vocational knowledge and skills indispensable for successful activity in a wider vocational area. They comprise 11 divisions with a total of 36 departments. The 11 divisions are the following:

- Mechanical
- Electrical
- Electronic
- Building and construction
- Chemical and metallurgy
- Spinning and textiles
- Applied arts
- Economics and administration
- Land technology
- Social services
- Nautical

The courses last three years for gymnasion graduates and two years for graduates of other types of lykeion, while the evening TELs (with reduced teaching hours) last four years and three years respectively.

The first year lessons are common to all. Differentiation begins in the second year, where pupils choose an area of occupation to start with, while in the third year they may choose either a department of speciality within the previously chosen division or one of the now familiar four subject groups (see paragraph 2.2.2).

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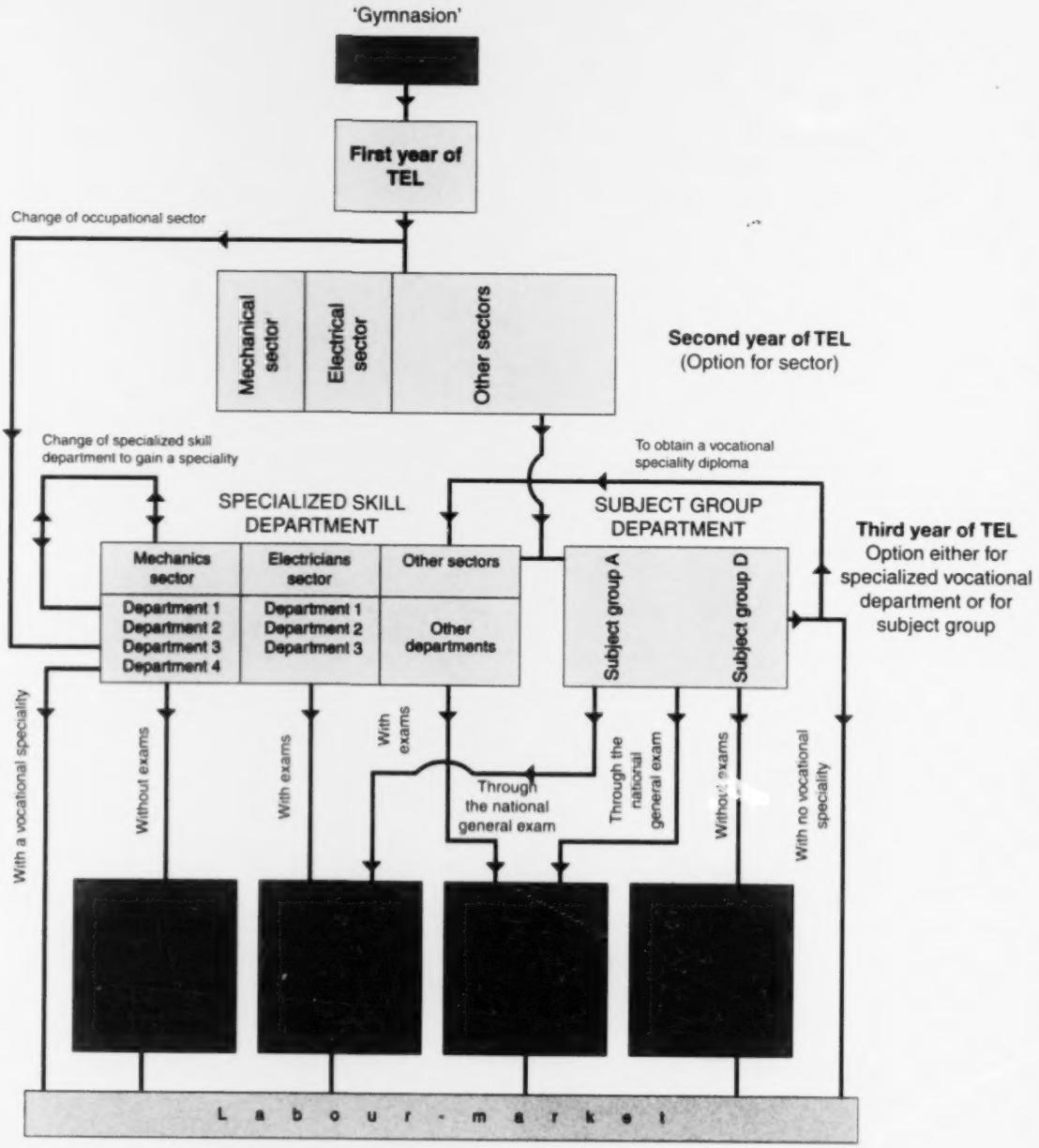
Structure and openings of technical vocational lykeions (TEL)



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TEL graduates are presented with more openings than TES graduates and, more specifically:

- they may practise the occupation of the speciality they have chosen;
- they may acquire a second speciality diploma;
- they may continue their studies in AEIs and TEIs.

The trend in TELs' pupil numbers shows the following picture over the past 10 years:

Number of TELs, of pupils, divisions and departments, 1981–90

School year	TEL	Pupils	Divisions	Departments
1981/82	136	65 109	9	17
1982/83	136	73 251	9	17
1983/84	171	74 688	11	28
1984/85	171	69 736	11	28
1985/86	221	68 844	11	30
1986/87	221	75 227	11	30
1987/88	236	82 572	11	30
1988/89	247	82 775	11	32
1989/90	247	81 381	11	36
1990/91	252	80 338	11	36

Source: Ministry of Education, unpublished data.

The proportion of girls here is noticeably higher than in the TESs — in the school year 1990/91 it amounted to 40.1%.[34]

In 1990/91, the following divisions and departments showed the greatest demand:

• Mechanical	3 717 students
• Electrical	2 956 students
• Electronics	2 867 students
• Building	1 707 students
• Information science	1 501 students
• Economics and management	5 982 students
of which in the department for accountancy staff	2 559 students
and in the department for administrative staff	3 423 students
• Land technology	3 537 students
• Medical and laboratory assistants	2 171 students

Source: Ministry of Education, unpublished data.

According to information received from the appropriate directorate for secondary education of the Ministry of Education, these student priorities remained relatively stable over time.

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The OAED apprenticeship

2.2.6.
The Organization for Employment of the Workforce (OAED), supervised by the Ministry of Labour, has offered this form of vocational training for about the last 40 years. The apprenticeship differs from the vocational education courses provided by the Ministry of Education in the sense that it contains and implements various practices from the world of work. The most important recent relevant laws are Law 1346/1983 and Law 1566/1985. Up to the school year 1984/85, the apprenticeship had the following features.

Pupils worked during the day in State-run, or private enterprises, in jobs corresponding to the speciality in which they were being educated, while on four afternoons a week and for a total of 14 hours they attended theory classes and practicals in laboratories at the organization's apprenticeship centres.

At the beginning of 1984/85 the apprenticeship changed form and gradually grew similar to that of the German 'dual system'. Since then, first year students attend exclusively either apprenticeship centres or technical and vocational training centres (KETEKs) for both theory and practicals. The KETEKs differ from apprenticeship centres in that they provide both initial vocational training as well as further education. In the second year, the alternating training (similar to day release courses) begins but not in the previous arrangement of morning/afternoon. The apprentices nowadays work four days a week in businesses and on the fifth day attend lessons at the KETEKs or the apprenticeship centres.

Up to 1985, the apprenticeship represented an informal form of training. This was changed by Law 1566/1985, on the strength of which the apprenticeship diplomas were recognized as equivalent to those awarded by the Ministry of Education's TESs. The conversion of the apprenticeship to formal education meant that, among other things, as from 1985 young people had to be gymnasion graduates at least in order to gain entry. Entrant age is normally 15 to 18 years but in some specialities it may be extended to 23 years.

The following table shows the number of entrants, total enrolled, and graduates per year for the period 1984/85 to 1990/91.

Entrants, total enrolled apprentices and graduates of the OAED apprenticeship, 1984/85 to 1990/91

[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
1984/85	3 957	8 783	1 712
1985/86	4 438	10 078	2 340
1986/87	4 337	10 567	2 634
1987/88	4 312	10 722	2 777
1988/89	4 699	10 390	2 818
1989/90	4 995	11 715	2 932
1990/91	5 023	11 798	3 106

Sources: OAED, internal data, as well as in information bulletin, *The OAED and its contribution to society*, Athens, 1991.

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A point of relevance here is that the number of those actually attending annually is 5 to 8% smaller than the number enrolled. The number of entrants (and their regional distribution) is determined annually in May. The basic criteria here are the educational potential of KETEKs and of the apprenticeship centres, as well as the needs of the regional labour-markets. The students enter in September, following careful selection, a decisive part of which is an aptitude test. The formal minimum requirement for entry to the apprenticeship is, as mentioned above, possession of the gymnasion leaving certificate.

Duration of the apprenticeship varies from four to six six-month semesters, according to speciality. The organization tries to find suitable work experience placements for the apprentices in businesses sited in the wider area of the KETEKs or apprenticeship centres. These young people later sign a work contract with the business concerned. The apprentices receive pay during their training which corresponds initially to 50% and finally to 100% of the minimum daily wage of an unskilled worker, according to the collective work contracts in effect at the time (see also paragraph 3.2.3). They are also provided with full medical cover, including medication and hospitalization, which is initially paid for by the OAED and later by the business concerned, through IKA (Social Insurances Foundation).

In 1990/91, 30 KETEKs operated throughout the country, as well as 14 apprenticeship centres, with a total of 27 occupational specialities offered in the courses provided:

- Pottery-ceramics
- Silver- and goldsmithing
- Electrician
- Automotive electrician
- Hairdressing
- Ready-to-wear dressmaking
- Mechanic
- Motor mechanic
- Internal combustion engines technician
- Carpenter-furniture maker
- Welding and metalic constructions
- Bodywork technicians
- Graphic arts, photo-litho, Printing technician
- Shipbuilding technician
- Baking and cake-making
- Refrigeration
- Watchmaker
- Plumber-heating plumber
- Electronic appliance technician
- Commercial business staff
- Metal quality control technicians
- Furrier
- Electrical, electronic and mechanical draughtsman

The majority of apprentices (75.5%), according to OAED data, are concentrated in six occupational specialities:

• Motor mechanic	22.9%
• Electrician	17.3%
• Mechanic	14.2%
• Plumbing and heating	8.1%
• Hairdressing	7.2%
• Motor bodywork technicians	5.8%

As shown in the above table, the number of new entrants and apprentices increased considerably in recent years. This is due to a rise in demand for apprenticeship places which, in certain specialities, resulted in an applicants/entrants ratio of 10:1. The attractiveness of this form of training is due, on the one hand, to the high unemployment rate among the young and, on the other, to

the very high absorption of apprenticeship graduates in businesses. The OAED's continuous contact and concern with practice and labour-market problems, as well as the close links of the apprenticeship with hands-on occupational practices, greatly increased its appeal to the young. There are indications that the degree of absorption of graduates of certain specialities into a corresponding employment reaches 50%, whereas the proportion of those employed in other occupations is only 10%. Apart from their direct integration into the labour-market, apprenticeship graduates, just like TES graduates, may enrol in the second year of a TEL.

Pupil flows

2.2.7.
A careful examination of pupil flows between general and vocational education in the second cycle of secondary education in recent years presents the following picture:

Pupil numbers in gymnasions and pupil distribution in the second cycle of secondary education

School year	Gymnasions	EPL	TES	TEL	OAED apprentices
1986/87	454 013	266 061	20 425	73 635	10 567
1987/88	436 593	251 024	38 423	87 976	10 722
1988/89	431 191	259 488	38 760	88 790	10 390
1989/90	431 980	250 228	40 191	87 334	11 715
1990/91	437 751	254 518	42 105	89 459	11 798

Sources: ESYE, press bulletins on education, 1987-91,
OAED.

The EPLs are not included in these figures because their dual character does not allow for a clear inclusion in either general or vocational education and, therefore, we cannot analyse precisely the distribution of flow of the pupils entering them.

The figures are totals in the sense that they include pupils in State-run as well as private schools. A careful examination of the ESYE data confirms the previous assessment as regards the marginal role of private schools (Section 2.1): in the school year 1990/91, private TESs accounted for only 14.6% of the whole, with 15.4% of TES pupil total. Corresponding figures for the TELs were lower still, reaching only 7.0 and 9.2% respectively. The figures refer to pupil totals, whether enrolled in day or evening school.

Vocational education pupils, as a proportion of all pupils in the second cycle of secondary education, with or without OAED apprentices, showed the following trend in recent years.

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Vocational education pupils as a proportion of total pupils in the second cycle of secondary education

1986/87	28.1	28.2
1987/88	33.6	35.3
1988/89	32.9	34.7
1989/90	33.7	35.7
1990/91	34.0	36.0

Sources: ESYE, press bulletins on education and OAED; author's estimates.

Criteria for pupils' choices

2.2.8.
The above data as regards numbers and pupil flows in the different educational directions could possibly be interpreted as a small differentiation of trends concerning the pupils' basic choice between general and vocational education. It should be noted, however, that the proportion of pupils in vocational education does not show a great or a stable increase, while continuing to lag well behind the corresponding international values. In addition, a quantitative rise of pupils in vocational education does not necessarily mean a reinforcement of the latter because what is of decisive importance in such a trend is the actual motivation of the young towards the TESs and the TELs.

It should be taken into account that 23% of the annual entrance into the TEIs has been allocated to TEL graduates being admitted on the strength of their grades. A further 8% covers TEL graduates who take a separate set of exams. Moreover, TES and TEL pupils are entitled to defer military service, which is not the case for GEL graduates failing to be admitted to tertiary education. Finally, there are strong indications that these schools, even today, represent an 'opening for lack of anything better' for those students who are aware that they do not have the qualifications to continue in GELs and further studies.

We, therefore, come to the critical question of whether and how far the young people who choose TESs and TELs:

- really believe in the value of vocational education;
- wish to avail themselves of the aforementioned advantages of these schools;
- consider themselves 'second class students' and vocational education as simply 'the lesser evil', rather than prematurely entering the labour-market without occupational qualifications.

On the contrary, entering the OAED apprenticeship seems to be a conscious decision. This view is confirmed by the very high applicant/entrant ratio, as well as by the fact that they successfully passed the entrance test, whereas entry to TESs and TELs is absolutely unconstrained. Furthermore, apprenticeship graduates may only enter the second year of a TEL and are, therefore, not gaining any direct access to tertiary education. Unfortunately, however, pupil numbers in the OAED apprenticeship, expressed as a percentage of totals in post-gymnasion vocational education, have always been very low and were recently below 9% (see table showing pupil numbers in gymnasions and pupil distribution in the second cycle of secondary education in paragraph 2.2.7).

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Yet, even if it is accepted that the rising percentages of pupils in vocational education reflect a stable and optimistic trend, such quantitative increase is meaningless as regards the quality of vocational education, which is a more serious matter by far. The assessment that weaknesses here are *par excellence* qualitative has been confirmed by the conclusions of the Vocational Education Commission set up by the Ministry of Education and which functioned in the summer of 1991. In that text, the greatest weaknesses of the vocational education system are said to be the following:

- lack of suitable books and laboratory manuals;
- detailed course programmes which do not correspond with present day needs;
- lack of research, studies or design for the development of new occupations;
- inadequate infrastructure, especially as regards laboratories; inequitable distribution of resources at the schools; inadequate equipment maintenance; poor coordination of administrative bodies;
- lack of appropriate instructors and other educationalists;
- absence of any further training whatsoever of the teaching staff;
- lack of recognition of occupational rights in a range of specialities and diplomas from TESs, TELs and EPLs;
- the unsuitability, in many cases, of the individuals in the position of director at TESs and TELs;
- the inadequate degree of absorption and utilization of national and, more particularly, Community resources in vocational education.

These disclosures give a summary but, at the same time, well-rounded picture of the present situation in Greek vocational education, warts and all. The implied conclusion could very well become a reference point for essential future improvements.

Intermediate nursing technical-vocational schools

2.2.9.
These schools are supervised by the Ministry of Health and Welfare. They provide young people with education in auxiliary nursing, so that they may later cover the respective needs of hospitals and other nursing establishments. Their operation is regulated by Laws 1566/1985 and 1579/1985. In the whole of Greece there are 54 schools of nursing in operation, 52 of which are run by the State and which come under various nursing establishments.

The minimum formal requirement for entry is the gymnasion leaving certificate, although most candidates are lykeion graduates. If the number of applicants exceeds the places available, then the grades of the graduation certificates are taken as selection criteria. Education here lasts two years and, after the first six-month semester, during which only theory is taught, it becomes a sandwich course, i.e., lessons are complemented by the corresponding practice in nursing establishments. Detailed courses are designed by the Courses Directorate of the Ministry of Health and Welfare and approved by Presidential Decree, after consultation with the Pedagogical Institute and jointly signed by the Ministers for Education and Health.

The merchant navy lykeions

2.2.10.
These schools operate under the supervision of the Ministry of the Mercantile Marine and cater for the specialities of ship's master and engineer for the merchant navy. They are governed by Law 1566/1985. Merchant navy lykeions may be public or private but they are very few (a total of five, with two more being set up). Gymnasion graduates or graduates from TESs' related specialities may enter without examination and on the basis of a standardized selection system. Detailed courses are designed by the Courses Directorate of the Ministry of the Mercantile Marine and approved by Presidential Decree, after consultation with the Pedagogical Institute and jointly signed by the Ministers for Education and the Mercantile Marine. Their diplomas are equivalent to those issued by the Ministry of Education's TELs.

Graduates of the merchant navy lykeions may, firstly, start on a career in the merchant navy as probationary masters or engineers. After 24 months' service at sea, they may gain the Diploma of Ship's Master grade 3 or Third Engineer respectively, while after a 36 months' service at sea plus four and a half months' tuition at the Merchant Navy Officers' Education Centre (KESEN), they may gain the Diploma of Ship's Master grade 2 or Second Engineer, subject to examination success. Alternatively, they may continue their studies at a higher State school for the merchant navy (ADSEN) for two six-month semesters and gain the Diploma of First Engineer or, following an additional term of service at sea of one year, the Diploma of Ship's Master grade 1 respectively.

Finally, they have the option of continuing their studies at an AEI or a TEI, provided the following criteria are met: they must have studied, during the third lykeion year, the subjects of the group which they had chosen and also passed the higher education entry general exam.

Schools for tourist industry occupations (STE)

2.2.11.
These schools provide formal vocational education and they come under the Greek Tourism Organization (EOT) which, in turn, is supervised by the Ministry of National Economy. They are governed by Law 1566/1985. They offer the following specialities: hotel work, restaurant catering and cooking arts. The entry qualification needed is the gymnasion leaving certificate. This education is provided by seven schools in the whole country, lasts for two years and is divided into two successive cycles: one theoretical and one practical.

Detailed courses are designed by the EOT and approved by Presidential Decree, after consultation with the Pedagogical Institute and jointly signed by the Ministers for Education and the National Economy. The diplomas from STEs are equivalent to those issued by the TESs.

2.2.12.
In this chapter we present a summary of the most important programmes of formal vocational education provided by tertiary education establishments. These do not include the AEIs which, by the jurisprudence of the Court of Justice of the European Communities, do provide vocational education (the *Gravier*.case 293/83, decision of 13.2.1985) but concentrate their efforts on the promotion of higher learning. Also excluded are teacher training and other academies. This is due to the fact that such academies belong more in general education, as well as the fact that they have been gradually absorbed by the corresponding AEIs. Lastly, we also exclude the schools of the three branches of the armed forces (army, air force and navy), due to their entirely specific purpose.

What, therefore, mostly remains is the TEIs, which represent a later development of the KATEEs. Many educational programmes which used to be provided by autonomous higher schools, for example, paramedical occupations, have now been integrated into schools of the TEIs with the exception of the Higher School for Tourism Occupations in Rhodes. In addition, there are the Higher State Schools of the Merchant Navy (ADSEN), which provide education for ship's masters, engineers and radio officers, as well as the Higher School for Tourism Occupations run by the EOT in Rhodes.

The TEIs are supervised by the Ministry of Education and dominate the field of tertiary vocational education. Their organization and operation is set down by Law 1404/1983. Their direction and mission is different from those of the AEIs. In effect, the TEIs attempt to provide their graduates with a theoretical and practical education, which will enable them to apply fully to a specific occupation the scientific, technical, artistic or other knowledge they have gained. Thus, the legislative aim is to integrate swiftly and effectively all modern technical know-how into the productive capacity of a region, indeed, according to the specific regional needs. In other words, this represents a deliberate political choice which stresses applied research.

Counter to what used to apply to the KATEEs, to the administration of which the Ministry of Education, being the competent authority, could intervene widely,[34] today's TEIs are organized according to the letter as well as the spirit of Law 1404/1983 and take the form of academic frameworks.[35] This means that the daily life of the present TEIs includes academic freedom, academic sanctuary, autonomy, democratic structure and function, and participation of all the relevant factors in the decision-making instruments, aiming at a continuous improvement and modernization of these foundations.[36]

The basic organizational units constituting the TEIs are: schools, departments, lesson groups, and annexes in other towns outside the base of a given TEI. There are 12 TEIs operating today in 12 towns: Athens, Thessaloniki, Piraeus, Patras, Larissa, Herakleion, Kavala, Kozani, Halkis, Serres, Missolonghi and Kalamata. Annexes are also found in Ioannina, Lamia, Karditsa, Chania, Florina, Drama, Arta and Karpenisi. The following six schools are in operation today[37] at the TEIs:

- Graphic arts and artistic studies;
- Economics and management;
- Health and welfare occupations;

- Technical applications;
- Food technology;
- Agricultural technology.

These schools are divided into 50 departments. In 1988 students in the TEIs numbered 66 651. Compared to this figure, students at universities and AEIs numbered 133 611.[38] From an educational policy perspective, it is worth noting that the TEIs absorb a significant proportion of young people who wish to continue their studies into tertiary education. From a total of about 42 000 entrants to tertiary education planned for the years 1988-90, approximately 19 000 (45%) places were made available by the TEIs. More recent data for 1991 and 1992, indeed, show that this distribution tends to a 50:50 ratio.[39]

Informal vocational education courses

2.2.13.
A range of such courses is offered by various ministries and public services and organizations in order to cover their specialized staff needs. We set out below the most important of these.

(a) The Ministry of National Defence provides education for officers and junior officers in special schools of the General Commands of the army, air force and navy.

(b) The EOT offers crash courses to unskilled individuals, corresponding to the three directions of the STEs, as well as training lower grade hotel staff in similar courses. The main concern in this effort is the best possible staffing of tourist industry units throughout the country by personnel with appropriate elementary education so that the tourist services offered correspond to a minimum level of need. The EOT also operates post-lykeion schools of tourist guides.

(c) The Ministry of Agriculture maintains two schools of agriculture for dairy and cheese-making, as well as flower-growing and horticulture. These schools (at Ioannina and Maroussi) were recently incorporated into the formal education system, since their diplomas became recognized as equivalent to those of the TESs. To these schools we should add a further 60 KEGEs (agricultural study centres) and related schools dispersed throughout the country, which annually provide further education in 24 different specialities for about 33 000 people (1991 figure). The boundaries between initial education/training and further education are fluid as regards the KEGEs and a special study would be needed to identify any differences. The participants of these courses include self employed farm-ers, agricultural workers and middle management (land technologists) employed in large agricultural concerns and cooperatives. The content and aims of these courses cover a wide range of activities of the primary sector of the economy. They are largely funded by Community resources, originally (i.e. from 1982 onwards) by the ESF and, after 1986, by EAGGF.

(d) The OAED also provides a range of crash courses for training and further education, either on its own or jointly with other Ministries. These courses are operated in the KETEKs, in OAED supervised classes within businesses or, finally, with the help of the organization's mobile units.

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(e) The Ministry of Justice maintains schools for prison staff for new recruits for jobs as prison officers.

(f) The Ministry of Culture supervises schools of dramatic art and dance, schools of cinema studies and singing academies.

(g) The Ministry of Public Order operates the Police Academy, which comprises the following schools: metropolitan police, chief guards, higher ranking police officers, foreign languages, police instructors and civil defence officers.

(h) The Ministry of Industry, Commerce, Research and Technology supervises two further agencies which provide education. The first of these is the Public Electricity Enterprise (DEH), which runs schools providing crash courses for new recruits for permanent jobs which require qualifications lower than those gained in tertiary education. The DEH also undertakes the practical classes of many OAED apprentices, as well as TEI and AEI students. The second agency is the Greek Organization of Small and Medium-sized Craft Industries (EOMMEH) which provides, mainly in border and arid areas, education in many traditional occupations, for example, carpet and rug making, wood carving, silver- and goldsmithing, marble sculpture, etc. The main aim here is to offer the local population and, especially, women the possibility of practising a trade and so improve their income, as well as reducing the trend towards urbanization.

(i) The Ministry of Transport and Communications supervises a range of public enterprises and organizations who cover their specialized staff needs through internal educational courses. The Greek Telecom Organization (OTE) maintains a staff school, as well as a higher telecommunications school, which provides education for organizational positions in administration, finance and technical posts. The Greek Post Office (ELTA) also operates a staff school, providing elementary tuition to new recruits. Similar procedures exist in the Greek Railways Organization (OSE), in the Athens-Piraeus suburbs electric buses (ISAP) and the Athens-Piraeus electric railways (ILPAP), which provide tuition for train drivers, trolley drivers, maintenance technicians, etc., respectively. The OSE also offers three-year tuition to OAED apprentices, whom it later recruits for the most part, while also offering practical classes to TEI students. The Civil Aviation Service (YPA) offers tuition in its eponymous school to air traffic controllers and airport workers.

(j) The Ministry of the Mercantile Marine supervises the Port Authority, at which the school of technical officers operates, as well as the school for junior naval officers, officer cadets and the school for harbour guards. The Piraeus Port Organization operates a vocational training school, which comprises the specialities of mechanical equipment operatives, port workers and maintenance and repair operatives for mechanical equipment and plant.

All the abovementioned courses concern a relatively small number of young people, mainly recruited by large public benefit enterprises for their own needs. In the last two or three years, a general ban on new recruitment has been in force, at least according to government announcements and applies to almost the entire public sector, with the exception of the Ministries of Defence and Education, aiming gradually to reduce the number of public servants. From this viewpoint, the quantitative 'weight' of these courses in the area of initial voca-

tional education has decreased further. The qualifications or diplomas acquired by the staff of these enterprises are, as mentioned earlier, informal and may not be used for transition to a higher educational level.

Vocational guidance

2.2.14.
Creating and continuously updating an effective and contemporary vocational education system, which could meet the country's wider socioeconomic needs, is a highly significant, if not a sufficient condition, for an increasing number of students to turn voluntarily towards this sector of education. It will, at the same time, be necessary to develop a systematic and intensified information policy in order to supply public opinion and, especially, the young with the full picture regarding the content, methods, aims and perspectives of vocational education, as well as relevant subsequent employment. At this point, we are faced with the exceptionally important, if not critical, matter of the transition of young people from school to economically active life and, specifically, the matter of vocational guidance. Two agencies operate in this field: the Ministry of Education and the OAED.

- School vocational guidance (SEP) has been established, since 1981, as a syllabus subject for year three of the gymnasion. After 1982, SEP was extended to all gymnasion years, to the first and second years of the general lykeion, as well as the first year of the TEL. In the context of the Community Programme Transition II, where a total of 30 projects were implemented between 1983 and 1987, Greece made a systematic effort to train sufficient teachers in this syllabus subject and this proved so successful that the teachers were later able not only to teach it but also to act as propagators by instructing their younger colleagues.

  The teacher training course in this subject was increased, in the context of Community programme SEP, from 20 days to five months. The knowledge acquired in the relevant seminars and workshops is later put into practice: such implementation includes discussions between teachers and pupils, the formation of working groups by pupils to study the local labour-market, visits to businesses, further discussions between teachers and pupils in order to assess the experiences gained, etc. The SEP itself is accompanied by empirical research, with the participation of pupils, parents and teachers. The SEP is further improved by assessing the questionnaires involved.

- The OAED has, since 1983, developed a significant activity in the field of vocational guidance. Based on Law 1346/1983, the OAED provides the active vocational guidance, through which young people between the ages of 15 and 18 may, for a short time, come into contact with a certain group of occupations and appraise their own abilities and inclinations so they may choose the right occupation. Another form is that of the personal vocational guidance directed at 14 to 18 year olds who, with the help of a skilled vocational guidance adviser, may better discover their interests and abilities as well as the world of work. Furthermore, any interested party may obtain information regarding any occupation from the services of this organization and from the vocational guidance centres, which also supply information on the training and further education courses run by the OAED. At the OAED's employment offices vocational guidance specialists advise the unemployed, normally adults, to help them

find work which corresponds closely to their qualifications and talents. Lastly, the vocational guidance counsellors carry out the selection of those entering the apprenticeship schools of the organization.

The OAED makes available throughout the country three vocational guidance centres (in Athens, Thessaloniki and Iraklion), which provide comprehensive information, including data, as well as attention by trained staff and other facilities, to any interested party. This comprises material consisting of special files, by level of education, containing detailed information on every occupation, relevant monographs, video cassettes and transparencies. In addition, vocation guidance is provided by specialists, based on modern counselling techniques, whether personal or in groups, as well as support in finding work.

- As regards the transition of the young from school to economically active life, this was intensified in Greece after 1983, always in the context of the corresponding Community programmes. As regards the Transition II programme mentioned earlier, this did not only implement the familiar project SEP-GR-13, it successfully implemented alongside project LINK-GR-15 (linking the integral multidiscipline lykeion with the social, economic and production environment) and the project AGRO-GR-14 (education of staff members for agricultural cooperatives). All three projects were 50% financed by the ESF.

  The next programme PETRA I, in the first place, implemented 11 transnational projects, mainly in the areas of vocational guidance for people with special needs, etc. A further five research projects were carried out, with generous financial support from the ESF (80 to 100%): three of these were at national level ('instructing the instructors', 'Trend analysis of pupil participation in vocational education' and 'The changing needs for occupational skills'), the other two being of a regional nature ('Staff education for dress- and model-making in Thrace' and 'Alternative suggestions for developing an education/training system aiming at staffing production units in the central Dodecanese').

2.3. Vocational further education

Background

2.3.1.
The further education and refresher courses provided to the population and, more specifically, to the workforce, take on a different, special meaning and weight in every country, according to the part played by further education compared with initial education, whether general or vocational. In this matter one may formulate the following simplified work-hypotheses:

(a) On the one hand, there are countries with adequately developed educational systems, quantitatively and qualitatively, where refresher courses mainly adapt the knowledge and skills of the workforce to the contemporary needs of the economy at any prevailing time, as well as cover a large part of the general social demand for education.

(b) On the other hand, some other countries have notable weaknesses in their system of general and, more so in vocational, education, where re-fresher course needs must take on the additional, difficult, and to a large extent thankless and remedial, role of belatedly supplying a range of knowledge and skills which should have been provided by initial education.

These observations will acquire some meaning for the reader in promoting an understanding of what will be expressed later concerning further education or refresher courses in Greece, provided the reader agrees that the country falls into the second category. Of course, this does not mean that useful conclusions can be drawn as to whether and to what degree further education in Greece satisfactorily fulfils the role of a substitute for initial education.

Agencies for further education

2.3.2.
The number of services, organizations and other agencies that provide further education is so great that it is impossible to be specific. The following list includes only the better known of such agencies:

- Elkepa (Greek Productivity Centre), with all its institutes;
- EOMMEH (Greek Organization of Small and Medium-sized Craft Industries) and the innovation centre it supervises;
- Regional organizations of the SEB (Association of Greek Industries);
- IVEPE (Industrial Further Education Institute), operating through the Inter-enterprise Association under the auspices of the SEB;
- GSEE (General Confederation of Greek Workers), through the earlier Kemete (Documentation and Studies Centre), which has been replaced by the Work Institute;
- Various trade unions;
- Local trade union organizations (Workers' Centres of Athens, of Thessaloniki, etc.);
- OAED, through a range of further education programmes;
- Paseges (Panhellenic Confederation of Agricultural Cooperatives Unions);

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- The Ministry of the Presidency, through the National Public Administration Centre (EKDD). The National School for Public Administration comes under the EKDD and comprises the Institute of Introductory Education in Administration, as well as the Institute for ongoing Further Education;
- Various agricultural cooperatives;
- Boroughs and communities;
- EEDE (Greek Society for Enterprise Management);
- EEEE (Greek Society for Enterprise Research);
- TEE (Technical Chamber of Commerce of Greece);
- Land Technology Chamber of Greece;
- The Greek Mathematical Society;
- The General Secretariat for Popular Education;
- The Youth and Sports General Secretariat;
- YMCA and YWCA.

The relevant courses are designed, in the main, using the following criteria:

(a) age of participants (above or below 25);
(b) employment situation (working or unemployed);
(c) educational level (graduates of gymnasion, lykeion, TEI or AEI).

Nonetheless, groups are often made up using more than one of the above criteria. It is doubtful, however, whether such grouping, following standards set by the EC, always corresponds to the special needs of each Member State and whether some combinations of these criteria are really meaningful or might serve other purposes.

Assessment of further education

2.3.3.
To date, vocational further education has not been the object of any serious and systematic study or research in Greece. Something of the sort would be indispensable, especially as in the last five or six years a dramatic expansion has marked this field, mainly due to enormous financial support from the EC, particularly from the ESF. The number, objectives, content, methods and other conditions of these courses present such variety that it is impossible to set down. Further education is, of course, a field needing the greatest possible flexibility and quick adaptation to market forces, as well as social demand. This cannot, however, justify the total absence of any transparency or coordination, nor the manifold overlap between various further education programmes, leading to a waste of resources. Here, still greater efforts should be made to annul these negative effects without creating some new centralized bureaucratic coordinating machinery. In the present case, perhaps, the best instruments would be better and more information and a relevant observatory.

This would naturally presuppose an ongoing, qualitative and profound assessment of further education courses, an assessment that goes beyond the narrow technoeconomic rationale of 'absorption coefficients' of resources. Much remains to be done in this matter. To date, there are many and strong indications that there exists a whole range of weaknesses in today's system of vocational further education which, among others, are the following:

- lack of an overall concept and coordination as regards the programmes provided;

- senseless fragmentation of effort, as well as overlap of many programmes;
- inadequate preparation and rough and ready execution of most programmes;
- heterogeneity of the groups being instructed and lack of a corresponding adaptation of content and methods of further education;
- theoretical bias and lack of practical application in many programmes;
- no assessment of almost any of the programmes;
- low absorption of unemployed further education graduates by the labour-market, according to cross-referenced indications;
- insufficient use of the EC funds;
- abuse of several further education programmes in order to provide concealed funding for small and medium-sized enterprises, as well as vote-catching by many mayors and public officials.[40]

All of these problems appear to have intensified during the last two to three years. In the context of an otherwise sensible and well-targeted decentralized European Commission policy, urban and rural communities could directly absorb ESF resources in order to fund further education programmes. The fact that they were not themselves in a position to implement these programmes because they lacked ideas, experience and infrastructure is understandable. Beyond this, however, local authorities, in their efforts to farm out the programmes to third parties, proved unable to create criteria or mechanisms leading to the correct selection of the best agencies for this further education, since other purposes were served through such selection. Thus, several of these programmes ended up as simple work therapy and served local leaders as an alibi or as a shop window for their election campaigns.[41] With regard to private business initiatives in further education, some suspicions have been raised that, helped by inadequate or loose control, ESF resources have been misused here and there as a quick, covert way of funding mainly small and medium-sized enterprises.

The State-run Greek Productivity Centre (Elkepa) is the largest and, by all indications, the most serious further education agency in the country. Its programmes may be divided arithmetically into the following categories: management (44%), information studies (35%) and new technology (21%).[42] Participants are private and public enterprise managers (41%), AEI and TEI graduates (31%), lykeion graduates (25%), members and higher officers from cooperatives (1%) and the rest (2%). Elkepa overall addresses six categories of interested parties:

- businesses;
- organizations;
- free participants;
- employed or unemployed people, aged 25 and over;
- young people under 25;
- the rest.

Turning to funding sources, the Elkepa programmes may be separated into three categories:

(i) programmes in the regular budget;
(ii) ESF programmes;
(iii) programmes in the context of integrated Mediterranean programmes.[43]

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The Elkepa, in its annual reports, presents detailed data concerning the number and type of its programmes. Although these reports mainly contain statistics, they are highly informative, so representing an exception from the rule applying to the assessment of further education programmes in Greece. Certain data concerning the Elkepa's activities are set out below:[44]

Elkepa's activities in further education: Regular budget programmes

Year			Participants
1986	397	32 616	9 264
1989	335	25 404	6 446
1990	284	22 491	5 473
Changes:			
1990/1989	–15%	–11%	–15%
1990/1986	–28.5%	–31.1%	–41%

Elkepa's activities in further education: European Social Fund programmes

Year			Participants
1986	282	54 002	7 270
1989	64	15 144	1 500
1990	79	17 473	1 790
Changes:			
1990/1989	+23%	+15%	+19%
1990/1986	–72%	–58%	–75%

Elkepa's activities in further education in the context of the integrated Mediterranean programmes

Year			Participants
1986	10	1 485	265
1989	164	38 329	3 151
1990	207	44 109	4 080
Changes:			
1990/1989	+26%	+15%	+29%
1990/1986	20 fold	30 fold	15 fold

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Conclusions

2.3.4.
An attempt to interpret the above data leads to the following summary conclusions: over the period 1989–90, the total number of programmes and participants rose very little (by 1.2 and 2.2% respectively), in contrast to the number of hours which rose noticeably more (by 6.5%). Compared to 1986, there has been a dramatic increase of programmes in the context of the IMP in contrast to the drastic reduction of programmes co-funded by the ESF. The reasons for such developments will need further analysis. Here, it may be a case of an internal readjustment of individual programmes between ESF and IMP. Another explanation may be that, in recent years, many private further education agencies absorbed many more resources from the ESF than before; in which case, the Elkepa does not have as many 'customers' as it did in the past.

The following refers to the percentage of programmes given impetus and co-funded by the European Community

(%)

	1986	1989	1990	1991[1]
Programmes	42.4	40.5	50.1	50.3
Hours	63.0	67.8	73.2	68.3
Participants	44.8	41.9	51.7	51.6

[1] Data for 1991 have a different structure from those for 1986, 1989 and 1990. It is possible that the Community may participate in other programme categories. Percentages for 1991, therefore, must be considered as minimums.

It should also be noted that, in 1991, the number of programmes rose by 50.8%, hours by 54.6% and participants by 55.1%, compared with 1990. These figures confirm the rapid rise of further education in Greece in recent years, as well as the increasing contribution by Community programmes and resources in this effort.

There are four studies known to deal with this matter in one way or another. Two of these were published in 1984 and 1985 by the General Secretariat for Popular Further Education. These attempt to present the programmes in detail[45] and also to assess the importance of further education as concerns the return home by emigrants.[46] Their content is no longer relevant but the interested reader may refer to the detailed data they contain.

Two more recent and more important studies were commissioned by CEDEFOP: one attempts to research the funding of adult further education within the total network of vocational education and the other attempts to identify the role of further education in combating long-term unemployment, based on specific programmes.

The first study confirms without reservation the earlier viewpoint that available data as regards further education in Greece are less than inadequate. Some of these data, however, allow for an outline of some basic features of the present situation. It should be noted at the start that the study in question uses the term 'further education' in its widest sense, which comprises all educational activities by (mainly public sector) enterprises, aiming to integrate their new recruits into their occupation, activities which normally constitute initial education. For example, about half the further education agencies of ministries and other public enterprises and organizations use further education in order to provide their staff with certain basic qualifications.[47] In this way, they are admitting clearly, if indirectly, that the formal education system is not able to supply them with adequately educated staff.

The same study also identifies a rapid rise in total expenditure for further education over the period 1986-88.[48] Increases of the order of 200% for the wider public sector, approximately 500% in private businesses and 20% in the private studies centres in only three years speak for themselves. Strong indications (for example, the above data of the Elkepa) show that the trend for a further rise in the relevant absolute values was relatively stable in the last two to three years.

Even more impressive is the fact that the number of applications by private businesses to the OAED to carry out their own programmes, funded by the ESF, increased from 149 in 1986 to about 6 000 in 1989.[49] This may be linked with the attempts mentioned earlier by certain small and medium-sized enterprises to misuse ESF resources as a means of concealed funding.

The second study proves, using specific cases, that in Greece the use of further education to combat long-term unemployment is minimal. It also reveals, however, that the structure and form of long-term unemployment is different here from other industrially more developed Member States. It shows that Greece has still not come across the so-called 'unemployment through technology', which largely affects middle-aged people who become redundant due to technological innovation and stay unemployed for a long time. Here, the long-term unemployed are usually young people under 29 who either may not utilize their incomplete initial education by finding a job, so that their further education becomes essential, or resort to family shelter, remaining unemployed for a considerable time during a search for employment which corresponds to their qualifications.[50]

The number of applications made up to 1990 by public and private further education programmes were neither sufficient nor serious, resulting in incomplete absorption of the Community funding available. Since then, the absorption rate has risen substantially, although the matter of quality and real benefit of a number of the programmes of this kind continues to be debatable. Relevant warnings and stricter recent control by the European Commission compelled the Greek Ministry of Labour, which manages ESF resources, to seek out methods and means whereby it can control, at least, the financial management of these resources and, potentially, the real benefits accruing from the programmes.

3 THE INSTITUTIONAL AND FINANCIAL CONTEXT

3.1. The legal context and regulatory factors

Background

3.1.1.
Greece is a country generally practising centralized organization and administration. The prefectures neither make, nor implement local policy, except to a very small degree. On the contrary, they are executive bodies of central government. Their structure is such that it reflects the competencies of individual ministries to a point (see Section 1.1). Most prefectures simply have the power to make proposals, through prefecture councils, while having limited margins of manoeuvre for the redistribution of items.

A few years ago, a new administrative unit was created, namely the region, whose role is not perfectly clear but acts, on the one hand, as coordinator between prefectures and, on the other hand, as mediator between them and central government. The regional general secretaries (or regional directors) are not elected but appointed by central government. The regions negotiate directly with the European Community on matters relevant to regional development programmes, which they also manage.

The most important agencies currently concerned with initial vocational education and which also act definitively as policy makers are the Ministry of Education and the OAED, with the regions playing a complementary role.

As is well known, the Ministry of Education covers the greater part of pupils in secondary post-gymnasion vocational education with its TESs, TELs and, in part, the EPLs. The OAED, in contrast, educates a relatively small number of young people. The apprenticeship, however, is by Greek standards considered as a model.

The most important laws and regulations

3.1.2.
The most important laws were set out in Section 2.1 as an 'historical outline'. We will next present summarily the most significant measures taken in the recent past on the basis of the abovementioned laws.

Law 309/1976 established the nine-year compulsory education. Law 576/1977 founded the TESs and the TELs, while the KATEs (higher technical education centres) were converted into KATEEs (higher technical and vocational education centres), since the technical specialities were expanded to include others, with different content. School administration was decentralized to a great extent by Law 1566/1985, on the basis of which the administrative responsibility for schools, as well as the relevant budget, was transferred from the Ministry of Education to the local authorities. The OAED apprenticeship was incorporated into the formal education system when its diploma was made equivalent to that of the TES. SEKs (school laboratory centres) were also founded, in order better to utilize laboratory equipment by making it available to TES and TEL pupils, as well as those in the apprenticeship. Law 1836/1989 for the first time created bodies at national, regional and prefectural levels, in order to improve the harmonization of vocational education and training with the demands of the employment system. These bodies include representatives of various agencies but they operate under the supervision of the Ministry of Labour. Lastly, through Law 2009/1992, the Ministry of Education was enabled to act beyond the formal vo-

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cational education system, more particularly in the area between lykeion and tertiary education, by providing initial education/training and/or further education. The final aim is that these programmes, taken together with those of other ministries, will make up a national system of vocational education and training. It is hoped that the OEEK (Organization for vocational education and training) will develop into a research, advisory, executive and supervisory body for education/training programmes, as well as an agency for the definition of specifications for the recognition of diplomas.

The Ministry of Education and the establishment of schools

3.1.3.
When a school (for example TEL or TES) is set up, the following decision-making process is involved:

- The Prefecture Education Committee submits a proposal
- The Prefecture Council is consulted
- The proposal is submitted to the Ministers for Education and Economic Affairs for approval
- If the proposal is approved concerning foundation of a TEL or TES, the appropriate Presidential Decree is issued (in the first quarter of every year).

A similar procedure is followed for the abolition of a TES or TEL.

An important change came about through Law 1566/1985 concerning, as already mentioned, the administrative competence for schools from the regional bodies of the Ministry of Education (Directorates and Education Secretariats) to local authorities, i.e. boroughs and communities. To this end, the ownership of school buildings and grounds was transferred to local authorities without formalities. The new agencies for schools are special legal persons in public bodies law, local schools authorities, governed by the respective boroughs or communities or local education committees. The cost of operating, maintenance and repairs of schools now devolve upon boroughs and communities. The necessary financial resources are made available to the local authorities by the Ministry of Education.[51] School staff continue to be paid by the Ministry.

An extensive assessment of the results of this altogether sensible decentralizing attempt would be beyond the remit of the present text. In Greece, however, it is often noted that centralized power does not give up its competencies to local authority although it has announced that it would. At the same time, several boroughs and communities are not in a position satisfactorily to fulfil the duties undertaken. It would appear that something of the sort is happening in the present case. A negative effect is certainly exerted by the invincible bureaucratic mentality, which permeates a range of rules and regulations and reduces their effectiveness. Typical examples of this mentality are to be found in the procedures designed for the approval and distribution of budgetary items for the repair and maintenance of schools.[52]

The most important school bodies are the following:

- The Director, who has 'special responsibility for the smooth running of the school, coordination of school life, abiding by the law, conforming to circulars and service instructions, as well as the implementation of the decisions of the teachers' association'. He also 'participates in performance evaluation of his staff and cooperates with school councillors'.[53]

- The teachers' association, with the school director as chairperson, marks out the guidelines for best implementation of relevant educational policy. It is responsible for applying the timetable and detailed programme for the health and protection of the pupils, the cleanliness of school spaces and for organizing school life. It also administers the needs of the school and sees that they are met. Lastly, it ensures cooperation between teaching staff and local social agencies.[54]

- The pupils' community groups, which aim to help the pupils acquire responsibility and direct understanding of the importance of democratic dialogue in their development into aware and creative citizens. It is expected that, through these, pupils will contribute to the smooth and productive operation of the educational process and will form their own ideas about life. The setting up of pupil community groups, their instruments, as well as the selection processes for the last named, are regulated by the Minister for Education's decisions.[55]

- The school council consists of the teachers' association, the administrative council of the parents' association, the local authority's representative on the schools committee and (this only for secondary schools) three representatives from the pupils' community groups. Its task is to ensure the smooth running of the school, the establishment of communication routes between teachers and the pupils' families, together with student health and the school environment.[56]

- The school committee comprises one representative of the borough or community, one representative of the parents' association, one representative of the pupils' community group and the director of the school concerned. It is entrusted with the management of appropriations for operational expenditure, the search for further resources and the responsibility for school supplies, as regards essential materials and so on. This committee is set up following a decision of the relevant mayoral or community chairperson.[57]

The Pedagogical Institute (PI)

3.1.4.
Its tasks are as follows:

- scientific research and study of subjects connected with primary and secondary education;

- creation and submission of proposals for preparing guidelines, as well as planning and design of educational policy in primary and secondary education, in agreement with the country's economic, social and cultural development programmes;

- monitoring developments in education technology, studying ways of applying them to education and controlling and checking the results of their application;

- planning and care of the implementation of further education programmes for teachers.[58]

From the above we may draw the conclusions that all corresponding activities as regards formal vocational education under the supervision of the Ministry of Education pertain to the competence of the PI. Such activities refer especially to planning and creation of new specialities and occupations and the abolition of old ones, preparation of timetables and detailed courses for TESs, TELs and EPLs, supervision of the publication of school books and, finally, the operation of a documentation centre for vocational training and education jointly with the European Community and, in particular, with CEDEFOP. Most of these responsibilities are expected to be transferred gradually, on the basis of Law 2009/1992, to the newly set up OEEK, which we will describe immediately below.

The OEEK

3.1.5.
OEEK was created through the Law 2009/1992. The Ministry of Education aims to broaden its activities in vocational education and training through the OEEK. A special effort is being made to cover the interval between the lykeion and tertiary education by providing for the formal recognition of diplomas acquired in the context of relevant programmes. The OEEK's administrative board has 11 members: the chairman, the vice-chairman, the director of studies of secondary education of the Ministry of Education, one adviser from the Pedagogical Institute's department of technical and vocational education, one representative each from the Ministries of National Economy, Finance and Labour and one representative from each of the General Confederation of Greek Workers, the Association of Greek Industries, the General Confederation of Craft Industries and Traders of Greece and of the Union of Commercial Associations of Greece. The administrative board is constituted following a decision of the Minister for Education. Its members serve a three-year term.[59] The tasks of the OEEK are described in detail in the text of the relevant Law (see also Section 4.7).

It is still too early to attempt an advance assessment or to guess the results of the OEEK's work. What is highly significant is the fact that Greece, at long last, has a service competent for recognizing vocational education titles below the tertiary, this having been, to date, a subsidiary function of the PI. In addition, the Ministry of Education, for the first time ever, is in a position to develop activities, such as the following:

- linking and better harmonizing basic vocational education with specialized training;
- closer contact and cooperation with the world of work in order to create programmes and methods better adapted to practical needs;
- encouraging, carrying out and coordinating extensive and cohesive research programmes in the field of vocational education and training;
- utilizing the OEEK as an adviser to the ministry for the creation of modern policies in vocational education;
- coordinating cooperation between the ministry, the social partners and the European Community services, as well as fully utilizing Community resources and programmes in the field of vocational education.

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The teaching staff

3.1.6.
Most of the teachers of technical or vocational subjects in the TESs and TELs, before taking up their appointments, must be suitably trained in the PATES (pedagogical technical school) of the Selete (teacher training college for vocational education and training).[60] The Selete is based in Athens. The PATES also has an annexe in Thessaloniki. In addition to this teacher category, there are those who have trained at the Asetem (higher school of instructor technologist engineers) operated by the Selete but the latter are few in number. The first and much more numerous group of PATES graduates is divided into two categories:

- AEI graduates, who undergo a six-month training period to prepare them for their teaching duties;

- TEI or lower grade graduates, for example, secondary education leavers, who undergo a 12-month training.

Here we are dealing with a compulsory but, at the same time, informal further education process of an introductory nature, which aims to better prepare candidate teachers for their occupation. Taking into consideration the excessively theoretical nature of the overall Greek educational system, this arrangement seems very useful. Certain experts have, in fact, described the Selete as a model at European level.[61] In contrast, though, it is claimed that one of the main reasons for the low levels prevailing in TESs and TELs is the inadequacy of the qualifications of their teaching staff[62] which, in turn, creates doubts as to the effectiveness of the PATES and the Selete. It is also notable that the far more important ongoing further education of vocational education teachers is negligible or, in essence, non-existent, in spite of the relevant legislative provisions[63] and the creation of the REC (regional education centre) in the Selete's context.

Candidate selection for entry to the PATES has, since 1982, used a system which is considered objective and an important part of which is the grades of previous diplomas, any postgraduate or post-diploma studies, knowledge of foreign languages, teaching experience, etc. After graduating from the PATES, candidate teachers register on a list and are appointed in order of registration to the TESs and the TELs. Their waiting time, however, is not as long as that experienced by general lykeion teachers because the number of entrants to the PATES corresponds approximately to the short-term requirements of the education system for covering permanent posts.[64]

The Ministry of Labour/the OAED

3.1.7.
The OAED, which is the body competent for the apprenticeship, is governed by an administrative board with a three-party constitution. Its members are the director, as chairman, two deputy directors, one representative each from the Ministries of National Economy and Labour, three representatives from the General Confederation of Greek Workers and the Association of Greek Industries, and two representatives from the OAED's administrative staff. The administrative board is constituted following a decision of the Minister for Labour. Its members serve a two-year term and they may renew their term of

service without restriction. Further, the Minister for Labour appoints a government representative for a three-year term but without voting rights.

The structure of the OAED is as follows: the central administration is in Athens and mainly deals with planning, organization and drawing guidelines for the issue of circulars. There are seven executive bodies in the form of regional directorates in Epirus, central and eastern Macedonia and Thrace, Thessaly, Attica, Aegean Islands, Peloponnese and Crete. Each prefecture also has a corresponding service. Throughout the country there are 31 employment offices charged with job finding and support for interested parties.[65]

Central administration charges the regional directorates and local KETEKs with researching the situation of the labour-market in their area and assessing the need for the provision of relevant training programmes. Local chambers of commerce, industrial organizations, work centres, the local authorities and prefecture councils all cooperate in this analysis. The results and relevant conclusions concerning numbers of places in the apprenticeship by speciality are then transmitted to central administration for approval. The data from all the areas are considered and submitted to the administrative board for initial approval. The whole process ends with the issue of a decree by the director, in which he sets out in detail the specialities and numbers of entrants to the apprenticeship for each area of the country.

Linking training with employment

3.1.8.
Law 1836/1989 contains a range of provisions which appear capable of reintroducing and reinforcing some correspondence between training and employment. More specifically, it provides, among other things, for the creation of a National Council for Vocational Training and Employment (ESEKA) comprising 11 members.[66] A regional Committee for Vocational Training and Employment (PEEKA) is set up in each of the country's 13 regions, while in each of the 53 prefectures a prefectural committee for vocational training and employment is created.[67] The possibility is also offered for the creation of experimental foundations for vocational training and employment,[68] in the form of legal persons in private law. From this point on, the OAED may contract out the execution of vocational training programmes, the research for drawing-up teaching programmes, production of audiovisual teaching aids and, generally, the implementation of education and further education programmes, not only to public but also to private agencies.[69]

Unfortunately, though, the provisions of this law have not been fulfilled in practice, except to a minimal degree, mainly due to the consecutive government changes occurring immediately following its enactment in spring 1989. Law 1836/1989, nevertheless, represents a most important tool at the disposal of the Ministry of Labour, as well as the OAED, with which both agencies can develop a vocational training policy much more actively and effectively than in the past. Its later fortunes, however, will be decided largely by the correlation of forces and competencies between the Ministries of Education and Labour which, at present, seems to be shifting in the direction of the former, following the enactment of Law 2009/1992.

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European Community programmes and the role of the regions

3.1.9.

Thanks to the latest measures and programmes of the European Community, the regions have, in recent years, taken an active part in the application of vocational education policy. The legal basis for the work of the EC funds is Regulation (EEC) No 2052/88 of the EC Council carried out through the Structural Funds (EAGGF, ESF and ERDF), with the objective of supporting structural changes in underdeveloped regions.

The structural changes pursued focus on the following objectives:

- promoting the development and structural adjustment of the regions whose development is lagging behind (Objective 1);
- converting the regions, frontier regions or parts of regions (including employment areas and urban communities) seriously affected by industrial decline (Objective 2);
- combating long-term unemployment (Objective 3);
- facilitating the occupational integration of young people (Objective 4);
- with a view to reform of the common agricultural policy:
  (a) speeding up the adjustment of agricultural structures, and
  (b) promoting the development of rural areas (Objective 5).

The financial help provided will be granted subject to certain conditions, for example where the per capita GDP is less than 75% of the Community average, or where there is a reduction in the number of people in employment and so on.

The EC approved for Greece a Community support framework covering the period 1989-93.[70] The relevant activities, however, only began in 1990. The programme aims to meet the targets set in the context of the reform of the Structural Funds. The Community support framework for Greece comprises activities to be undertaken at national as well as regional level.

Activities at national level revolve around five axes, the fifth of which involves activities for the development of human resources. Any activities for the improvement of training structures and any special programmes for training and the promotion of employment come under this.

Activities at regional level are carried out in the framework of 13 operative programmes, i.e. one for each region. Each operational programme is divided into five subprogrammes, funded by the corresponding European Funds (ESF, ERDF, EAGGF, etc.). The subprogramme funded by the ESF implements basic vocational training programmes in the following five areas:

- primary sector
- secondary sector
- tertiary sector
- local development initiatives
- OAED apprenticeship.

Basic features or criteria for these programmes are their contribution to development and their relationship to other economic activities in that area.

The agencies responsible for these programmes are regional and prefectural services, the annexes of central administration (i.e. of ministries, the OAED, the Elkepa, etc.), regional organizations, chambers of commerce, associations, professional associations, boroughs and communities.

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Regarding the implementation of vocational training programmes contained by Objective 1 of the current support framework, each region has the following competencies:

- it receives, every year and within set time limits, applications for the relevant programmes;
- it considers these applications and makes a preliminary selection;
- the regional council makes firm decisions concerning the programmes to be carried out;
- the appropriate body of the region (follow-up committee) monitors the development of the programmes from start to finish, as regards content and the technoeconomic aspect, composes and transmits reports to the Ministry of Labour, which is then responsible for the distribution of ESF resources and for drawing up the final accounts.

Objective 3 (combating long-term unemployment) and Objective 4 (facilitating the vocational integration of the young) involve national level activities. The Ministry of Labour, however, has abrogated to the regions certain competencies of selection, monitoring and control of the national operational programme 'activities for highly specialized training as well as basic vocational training'. The Ministry itself decides annually the distribution of ESF resources to the regions and is also responsible for the general follow-up, as well as potential programme revisions. Regarding all other aspects, monitoring and accounting procedures are exactly as for Objective 1. Activities within Objectives 3 and 4 are operated by boroughs and communities.

The bodies participating in the management of these programmes were partly created specifically for the implementation of the Community support framework. New agencies were added to existing ones (ministries, organizations, public enterprises, etc.):

- At the Ministry of National Economy a national follow-up committee was set up, under the appropriate junior minister;
- At regional level a follow-up committee was also set up, under the chairmanship of the region's general secretary, charged with monitoring individual projects;
- At the Ministry of Labour a committee was set up, with the general secretary of the ministry as chairperson, for monitoring not only the ESF programmes for Objectives 3 and 4 but also covering the project 'Improvement of training structures' contained in Objective 1;
- Programmes funded simultaneously by more than one Community fund (multi-fund programmes) are expected to be monitored by a specially constituted committee.

The role of the social partners

3.1.10.
To date, the social partners have had virtually no part at all in the development of vocational education in Greece. The IVEPE (Industrial Further Education Institute) of SEB represents an outstanding exception, although of limited scope. This institute was founded in 1980 by a group of industries who set up an interindustry association and operates today under the auspices of the SEB. It aims to provide further education and/or higher specialization of skilled technicians and foremen employed in the production sector or in the maintenance of industrial plant. Other aims are to promote and improve the self-sufficiency of middle management in industrial and craft-industry enterprises. The IVEPE installations are in Athens but the institute has annexes in Thessaloniki and Volos.

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IVEPE instructors are engineers and technologists highly experienced in industry. In recent years, this institute has cooperated with foreign agencies, within Community programmes FORCE, Comett and Euroform.

Involvement by employers and unions in the administrative bodies of the various agencies has always been rather rare, for example, in the OAED. Such involvement, though, concerns the highest levels of administrative boards, or else remains an enigma, as in the case of Law 1836/1989. Alongside this absence of legally constituted participation and, perhaps, related to it, there has been until now an absence of able officers in vocational training, either from the employers' or the unions' side, who might have actively participated in the creation of critical details or, at the very least, might have offered a documented viewpoint on relevant matters. The Ministry of Education, although the most important agency for vocational education, until recently had virtually no contact with the world of work, so as to enable it to incorporate and utilize the corresponding practical experience in the planning, implementation and assessment of vocational education programmes.

In recent years, this situation seems to be changing dramatically and rapidly. Both employers and unions have understood in full the critical importance of a well-trained workforce for the survival of the Greek economy. The 1988 collective work agreements, for the first time, provide for an employer's contribution to the vocational training of the workforce at 0.2% of gross pay. The contributions have been made regularly and, to date, a significant sum has been collected (approximately DR 10 billion).[1] Certain problems still exist, however, in the management and especially in the use of these funds.

For precisely this reason, both social partners decided, in 1991, to submit to the government a memorandum to start with and, later, a proposal for a draft law on the creation of a special account for vocational training programmes for workers (Elpeke).[71] In this proposal the employers declare their willingness to increase their contribution from 0.2 to 0.45%.[72] Most notable and possibly unique in Europe is their consent to constitute a two-party management committee for this account, on which will sit three representatives of the GSEE, one representative each from SEB, the General Confederation of Craft Industry and Other Traders of Greece and the Union of Business Associations of Greece and, additionally, one representative of the OAED.[73] Participation of the last named, however, requires that the account be managed by the OAED and this has not been agreed to date.

We will finally set out summarily certain basic features of the two social partners' organizational structure. The GSEE is the highest body of the Greek trade union movement. Its constituent members are the workers centres (one per prefecture), as well as single federations which may represent a trade or a specialization. In addition, federations of large public enterprises are represented, for example, the Federation of Civil Aviation Unions. Members of the workers centres are, in turn, factory, trade and occupational unions (specializations), as well as unions in public benefit enterprises, for example, technicians employed by boroughs and communities.

The Association of Greek Industries is the central and highest body representing overall the interests of Greek industry. At a secondary level, there are regional associations operating in different geographic areas, for example, the Association of Northern Greek Industries, western Greece, Thessaly, Crete, Thrace, etc., which formulate and represent more specific interests concerning their areas.

[1] DR 250 = ECU 1, May 1992.

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3.2. Finance

Background

3.2.1.
Greece has a relatively long tradition of free education at all three levels or, more precisely, formal education without fees and without purchasing school books. Naturally, this refers to public education. Thus, the great majority of young people in Greece enjoy free education. What still remains unresearched and doubtful is how far this education contributes to equality of educational opportunity. With special reference to vocational education, the question arises as to whether the fact that it is free is partly to blame for its low quality, a fact which implies subsequent remedial educational measures which are, of course, offered by private agencies for substantial reward.

The operation of private schools (primary, gymnasion, GEL, TEL and TES) is allowed. Even so, the proportion of pupils in private GELs does not exceed 5% and in private TELs 10% of the corresponding pupil totals. The proportion of pupils in private TESs is somewhat higher, at about 15%, but even this cannot be considered particularly significant.[74]

The operation of private establishments in tertiary education (universities, higher schools in any subject and TEIs) is forbidden by the constitution. Nevertheless, particularly in the area (in the temporal sense) of post-gymnasion and post-lykeion education, a huge number of laboratories or free (i.e. independent) studies centres have been active. These are attended by young people who either could not or did not wish to continue their studies in tertiary education and who hope that, through this expensive informal education, they will later be able to practise the corresponding vocation.

A relatively realistic and reliable assessment of public and private expenditure on various levels and forms of initial vocational education does exist, but it is the only one and is incomplete. Even this approach refers only to schools, foundations and agencies in the public sector. No serious attempt at a cost-benefit analysis has yet been made concerning this or any other sector of education. As for further education, even a simple attempt to collect and set out some data represents a Herculean task, due both to the diffusion of the programmes and to the multivariable, rather obscure or unknown methods of funding them.[75]

The data concerning costs and funding, set out below, refer to three agencies or programme categories:

- The Ministry of Education
- The OAED
- Programmes actuated and funded to a great extent by the European Community.

The Ministry of Education

3.2.2.
The Ministry of Education, during the period 1980-89, spent the following sums on secondary education:

Actual expenditure in secondary vocational education (DR million[1]/current prices)

Year	Teaching staff	Administrative staff	Operational	Investments	Total
1980	1 350	150	720	500	2 720
1985	6 200	600	2 100	2 400	11 300
1989	11 000	1 200	7 300	1 200	20 700

[1] ECU 1 equals approximately DR 250 (May 1992)
Source: Karayiannopoulos, E., *Expenditure, cost, funding of public education, 1970-89–Trends and developments*, Athens, May 1990, two volumes, (unpublished text), 2nd vol., Table 11a, p.186.

Using constant prices, the table presents the following picture:

Actual expenditure in secondary vocational education (DR million/constant prices)

Year	Teaching staff	Administrative staff	Operational	Investments	Total
1980	1 350	150	720	500	2 720
1985	2 424	235	821	2 402	5 881
1989	2 306	252	1 530	1 204	5 292

Source: Ibid., Table 11a, p.187.

The above shows clearly that total expenditure at constant prices, after a spectacular increase between 1980 and 1985, began to decrease. A continuous if small rise is noted in expenditure for current operation and administrative staff. Any attempt to interpret these trends would be very difficult because many important parameters, for example, quality factors, or chance investments based on specific programmes, are either unknown or cannot be estimated at the same time.

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Expenditure by cost factor presents the following trends:

Actual annual expenditure per teacher and per pupil, overall, also investment expenditure and operational expenditure per pupil (in drachmas/constant prices)

Year	Per teacher	Per pupil	Current expenditure per pupil	Investment expenditure per pupil
1980	353 496	34 396	9 102	6 333
1985	385 276	63 870	8 915	26 086
1989	354 781	52 916	15 304	12 036

Source: Ibid., Table 11a, p.188.

From the above, teachers' real earnings initially rose but fell again in 1989 almost to 1980 levels. In contrast, current operating expenditure per pupil rose noticeably and almost steadily. Lastly, investment expenditure shows large variations.

The proportion of total expenditure in secondary vocational education over total education expenditure rose from 5.5% in 1980 to 6.0% in 1985 and 6.1% in 1989 (see ibid., Table 11a, p.190).

Pupils at TESs, TELs and other Ministry of Education schools have to pay for their own maintenance. There are no school fees nor is there any charge made for books or other materials.

A review of relevant figures from other countries reveals the following sizes or percentages of public and private educational expenditure over GDP overall, by education level and sector. The data come from the OECD and refer to 1986, 1986/87, 1987/88, 1988/89 and 1989/90.

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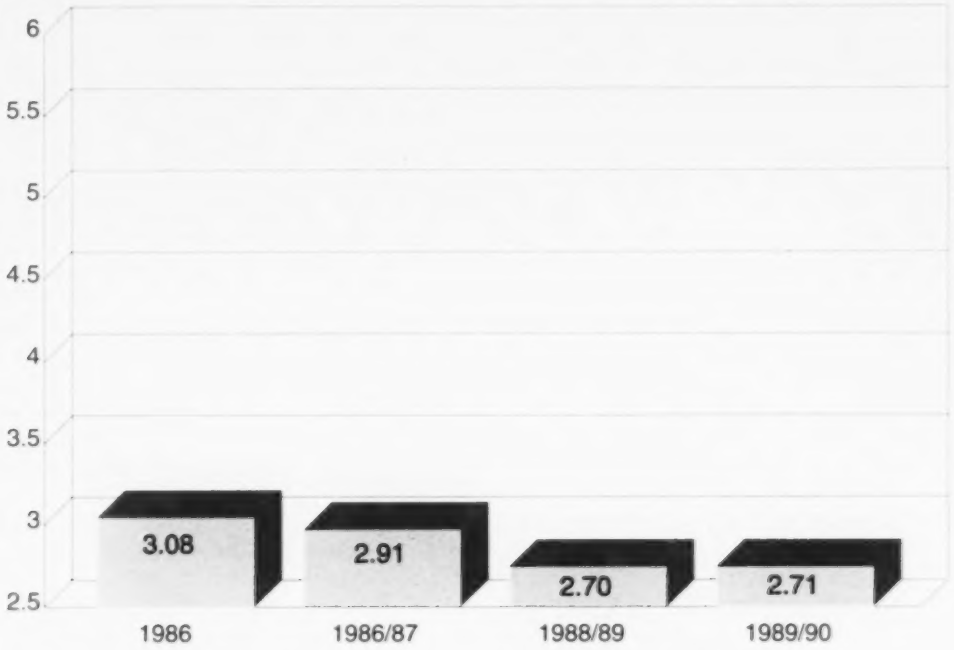
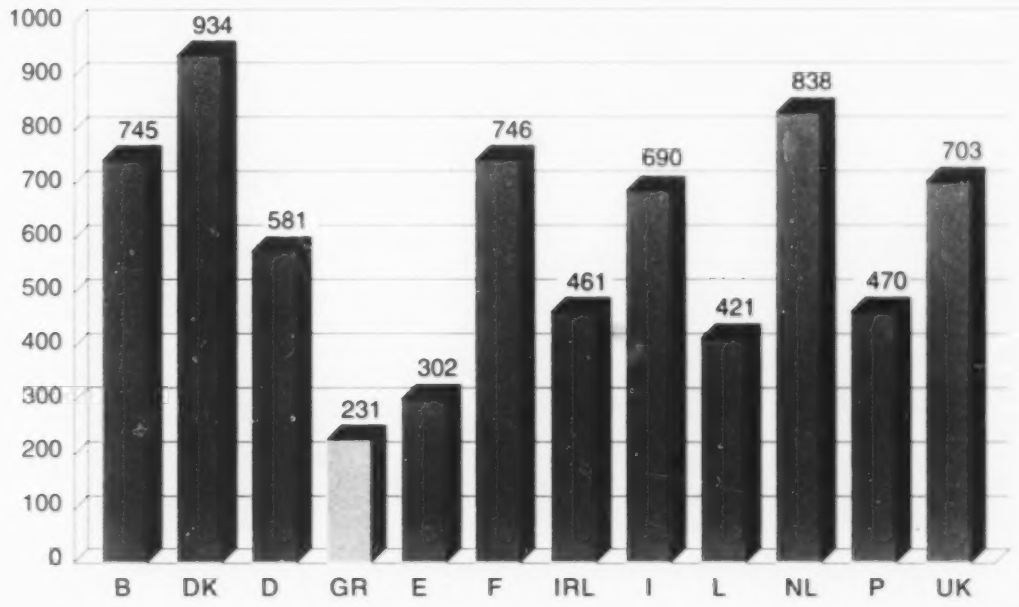
Public expenditure on education in Greece (% of GDP)



Source: OECD: Education in OECD countries 1986/87 and 1987/88; OECD in figures, 1991, 1992 and 1993 editions

Public expenditure on education in 1985 (in purchasing power standard (PPS) per head of population)



Source: Eurostat: *A social portrait of Europe, 1991*

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3.2.3.
The OAED develops three types of activity in vocational training and further education:

- the apprenticeship
- training crash courses
- in-house programmes which, in all other respects, are the responsibility of the businesses themselves.

All these activities receive grants from the ESF. The expenditure involved is shown in the table below, broken down by cost category.

OAED expenditure on apprenticeship, crash courses in vocational training and further education, 1989–91 (DR 1 000/current prices)

Year	Apprenticeship		Training and further education crash courses	
	OAED funds	ESF	OAED funds	ESF
1989	1 590 279	1 552 386	540 273	666 917
1990[1]	1 283 652	2 383 925	475 672	883 390
1991[1]	1 609 624	2 989 302	646 768	1 201 141

[1] Interim data.
Source: OAED, Internal data.

According to these data, a 46% increase in total expenditure was noted for 1989-91, while the percentage represented by ESF funds rose from 49.3 to 65% of total expenditure. As regards the further education crash courses, the increase in total expenditure was 53%, while here funds from the ESF rose from 55.2 to 65%.

We may note here that apprenticeship trainees in the period of their education of an alternating nature (sandwich course period), i.e. after the first two semesters, begin to receive pay from the businesses where they work with the following escalation:

third semester : 50% of the day wage of an unskilled worker (approx. DR 2 000)
fourth semester : 60% of the day wage of an unskilled worker (approx. DR 2 000)
fifth semester : 80% of the day wage of an unskilled worker (approx. DR 2 000)
sixth semester : 100% of the day wage of an unskilled worker (approx. DR 2 000).

The day wage of an unskilled worker was established at DR 3 980 for 1992.

In addition, the OAED provides free medical care to apprenticeship trainees who, after the third semester, are insured through IKA (Social Insurances Foundation) by the businesses in which they work. Lastly, the OAED provides free board and lodging in its own hostels for pupils who come from distant regions, as well as free board for those in need.

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THE INSTITUTIONAL AND FINANCIAL CONTEXT

Expenditure on in-house training and further education (DR 1 000/current prices)

Year	OAED funds	ESF	Business funds	Total
1989	9 250 421	9 705 097	9 477 837	28 433 355
1990	10 445 038	9 061 122	9 776 613	29 282 775
1991[1]	approx. 11 500 000	12 500 000	14 000 000	38 000 000
1992[2]	approx. 14 850 000	4 950 000	19 800 000	39 600 000

[1] Interim data by approximation.
[2] Existing approvals by estimate and by approximation.
Source: OAED data, see *Oikonomikos Tachydromos*.

It has been identified that the total expenditure on in-house training and further education rose by 33.6% between 1989 and 1991. Until that time, the funding was split between the three parties and of approximately equal size. For 1992, the OAED's share will probably be reduced significantly. Also notable is the great increase of business expenditure in 1991 and 1992.

Cost and funding of further education

3.2.4.
It has already been mentioned, earlier, that in Greece, to date, there has been almost no systematic attempt at a reliable presentation of the forms of funding, nor at an assessment or analysis of the relevant income in the vocational further education sector. A serious attempt was, for the first time, instigated and supported by CEDEFOP. Through this, the full extent of the difficulties involved in the collection of documented and complete data or information was revealed. The minimal economic data which the CEDEFOP study contains are the following.

Total expenditure on further education (in DR billion)

Year	Public sector	Private sector businesses	Free studies centres
1986	4.80	0.652	1.96
1987	9.70	–	2.10
1988	12.80	3.50	2.38

Source: CEDEFOP, *The funding of vocational training, with special reference to the further education adults of* in Greece, St. Frangopoulos, B. Kotsakis and Th. Papatheodosiou, Berlin, 1991, Table 18, p. 45.

Expenditure on further education in Greece for 1988 is estimated at DR 18.68 billion, of which 27.99% was made available by the European Community, 40.53% by the public sector and 31.48% by the private sector.[76]

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3.2.5.

The Community support framework for Greece mentioned earlier provides, for the period 1990-93, for the expenditure of enormous sums, some of which are intended for vocational education/training and further education. These sums are distributed according to category, as follows.

For measures and action in axis 5 of Objective 1 (development of human resources), there is a provision for expenditure of ECU 929 788 000 at national level. Of this sum, ECU 312 521 000 will be spent by the Greek State, ECU 113 800 000 by businesses, ECU 460 467 000 by the ESF and ECU 43 000 000 by the ERDF.

At regional level, the ESF will make available ECU 266 415 000 overall for 13 operational programmes. Since the ESF's contribution to the various programmes on average amounts to 65% of total expenditure, we may infer that the last named will come to approximately ECU 409 870 000.[77]

Turning now to measures and action under Objectives 3 and 4, the following expenditure is provided for at regional level: ECU 172 154 000 has been budgeted overall for vocational education/training, particularly for the OAED's training and further education programmes, and for corresponding programmes operated by boroughs and communities. Of this sum, ECU 60 254 000 is the national contribution and ECU 111 900 000 is the ESF's grant (at 1989 prices; DR 250 = ECU 1, May 1992).[78]

From the foregoing, it clearly emerges that the role of the EC in vocational education/training and further education and training is highly varied, broad and of vital importance for Greece.

TRENDS AND FUTURE PERSPECTIVES

4.1. An outline of the political context

In the near future Europe will be facing a range of challenges, the extent and intensity of which has greatly increased in the last two to three years. The crux is the effort being made for economic, political, social and cultural integration which has, to a large extent, been officially ratified by the Maastricht Treaty. Vocational education/training, which, for many years, has been the object of action at European level, can and should become an even more powerful instrument for social, economic, as well as cultural policy. The intensification of international competition, new technology and products, changes in division of labour within Europe and the European labour-market are all issues linked to the above.

Yet this rather optimistic viewpoint concerning the future has received a few blows recently. The unification of Germany and the concomitant partial revision of its political and economic priorities, the spectacular realignments in Eastern Europe, together with national conflicts, even within the Community, for the acquisition of new spheres of economic and political influence, as well as the internecine conflict in the former Yugoslavia, which is, in part, due to external factors; all these make up a new set of considerations which have led to a critical situation, especially in the Balkans.

Greece, therefore, as the only stable democracy in the area with a modern organization, needs to make a substantial effort in order to solve its own internal problems and then to start essential processes moving towards European integration. As well as this, it will, nevertheless, need to safeguard its basic national interests and, especially, to secure its borders against overt or covert threat. This has a serious impact on the use and distribution of its limited financial resources (for example, the proportion spent on national defence corresponds to 7% of GDP) and, of course, on the whole formation of an overall economic policy.

Policy-making as regards vocational education is affected by important factors such as the following: the role of Greece in the new European economy, the introduction, adaptation and utilization of new technologies, the establishment of new forms of work organization, the design of occupational profiles, as well as qualifications following European specifications and the creation of a European labour-market.

In what follows, we examine summarily these parameters with the aim of better assessing the targets, problems and, of course, future perspectives of vocational education.

4.2. Demographic trends

From the viewpoint of population growth, the trends noted are negative, as mentioned in the first chapter. Greece is threatened by ageing of the population and possibly by its decline. This would have very serious consequences, for present as well as future human resources. A first effect would be that such highly limited human resources will need the best possible education in order to secure the survival of the Greek economy and the strengthening of its competitiveness. This point is a matter of high priority for the country, in view of European integration, as well as the specific stabilizing and developmental role which the country should play in the Balkans.

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Thus, the quantitative and qualitative problems of the workforce acquire prime significance, especially in so far as they are interrelated and, therefore, vocational education and further education become most important. The initial vocational education system must provide young people with qualifications allowing them to find corresponding and effective employment quickly. The task of further education may prove even harder: it will not only have to remedy at a later date the doubtless shortcomings of initial education, by filling in the gaps, so as to enable mainly the young who are affected by long-term unemployment due to lack of experience, to be integrated more easily into employment; beyond this, it will need to educate further, using specific courses, workers of a more advanced age and, more particularly those threatened by unemployment by the introduction of new technology or organizational changes.

A future decline of the population now seems highly probable. Based on the number of births up to 1988, with other parameters being constant, as, for example, indices for entry and advancement in schools, it is expected that, in the school year 2002/03, gymnasion leavers (i.e. those finishing compulsory education) will number 96 900, instead of approximately 130 000, which was the number for the beginning of the 1990s.[79] This means a 26% reduction! Population decline might perhaps be offset by various means. One of these might be radical cuts in early retirement, together with raising the retirement age from 60 for men, 55 for women, to 65 for both sexes. These measures, which are imminent anyway, due to the enormous deficit in the social insurance system, would widen the field of vocational further education because whole new categories of people aged, for example, 50 to 55, would need further education in order to prepare them for several more years of vocational activity.

Another measure would be to increase the proportion of women in the total of the economically active population. In 1987, in Greece this proportion was 27.5%, while in the EUR 12, it was 33.3%, showing that there are margins for increase in this country. The gradual convergence of the Greek side with the Community average presupposes, amongst other things, the creation of programmes for vocational education and further education aiming to reintegrate women who had temporarily left the labour-market, for example, in order to have their family or to bring up children. Beyond this, particular further education programmes should be provided to facilitate such women's vocational development, as well as to open up occupations which had previously been an exclusively male domain. The success of such efforts, however, will necessitate further important complementary socioeconomic measures, in order to succeed in the vocational reintegration of women, for example, tax incentives, crèches, extension of part-time work, actual equality between the sexes, etc.

A third and totally unmeasured factor in the increase of the active population is the likely influx of emigrants of every form and derivation. It was mentioned in the opening chapters that, today, approximately 300 000 immigrants from Asia, Africa, the Balkans and the Middle and Far East live and work in Greece, illegally for the most part. The majority of these do jobs which require only minimal or no vocational qualifications, usually of an arduous manual nature in agriculture, animal husbandry, construction, mining and quarrying, and the tourist industry, i.e. the sort of employment that Greeks avoid or do not wish to enter. As well as this, it should be kept in mind that people of Greek extraction now living in other countries (Albania, about 350 000, the former USSR, 700 000, southern former Yugoslavia, 200 000) have already expressed, in one way or another, their intention to return to Greece. Lastly, there exists the possibility of an influx of waves of refugees if the internecine war in the former Yugoslavia escalates.

Such potential influxes of new immigrants would have positive as well as negative effects for Greece, an additional factor being their serious difficulties with the language. The volume of these potential immigrants, as well as their age structure and their vocational qualifications, may affect several parameters of economic and social policy, for example, the development of production, work organization and division of labour, industrial relations, under- or over-supply of human resources in particular specialities, social insurance systems, social integration, etc., indeed, to a degree that cannot be estimated in advance. As regards vocational education, the issues that could emerge would require innovative solutions.

4.3. Economic and industrial policy

The term 'policy', as used here, does not mean the application of State-controlled methods and macroeconomic planning with predetermined targets, i.e. an ideology which has proved to be an historical failure. Nevertheless, even the most liberal of governments does not omit to formulate some elementary economic priorities, guidelines and incentives, through which it pursues the best possible utilization of national resources in their countries, in view of international competitiveness and division of labour. In the final analysis, it is government services which are in a better position than anyone else to put down, analyse and assess the overall potential as well as the limitations of any economy. It is the government services which submit data and indices, in the form of position papers or targets to European and international forums of negotiation, in order to find solutions commonly acceptable and, later, individual enterprises may develop the relevant activity within a predetermined national or international context.

Greece, as one of the economically less-developed Community countries, needs such a policy if it is to define and fulfil its own future role within post-Maastricht Europe. For the moment, however, there is no such policy. The steps taken by the government to date continue to be mainly based on the dogma of free market forces, a fact which involves closing down rather than the systematic repair of whole sectors of Greek industry. Simultaneously, there exists no government position concerning a fresh start for industry. Moreover, no strategic decisions have been taken as regards the desirable and/or feasible future of the Greek economy, i.e. involving the distribution of roles among the basic sectors of the economy. There is almost a total lack of any analyses affecting the importance of different and partially alternative applicable new technologies, as well as their importance in the creation of new, or the reorganization of old occupations, the establishment of new forms of work organization, or the formation of new structures for employment and vocational qualifications.

Vocational education does not only represent a dependent function of economic facts and developments. It can, by itself, motivate or encourage decisions for the introduction of new technologies and forms of work organization, for the improvement of working conditions as well as the scope of vocational advancement of the workers, for the creation of new enterprises and the increase of internal as well as international worker mobility. The lack of documented and consistent economic and industrial policy, therefore, involves many difficulties for vocational education, among others, because the latter cannot follow effectively any policy without definite fundamental guidelines or other orientation. The part played by small and medium-sized enterprises has been and continues to

be definitive for Greece. The SMEs affect, to a large degree, production, employment and income not only for the official economy but also for the black economy, which is estimated at 40% of GDP. Nonetheless, the SMEs will survive and, perhaps, prosper only if they manage to differentiate, renew and improve the quality of their products; if they assimilate as best they can new technologies and so take on, within the meaning of the European division of labour, a complementary rather than competitive role *vis-à-vis* big business. Concerning the last point, any national advantages and peculiarities should be utilized purposefully and not merely taken into account.

Both quality and structure of the workforce will be critical factors in this effort, at management level as well as in the production process itself. At this point there are enormous gaps in specialities and skills and a radical revision may be required of the planning, implementation and assessment of established, traditional further education programmes in order to become truly effective. The present day objective situation, i.e. that many workers in SMEs often do several different jobs, constitutes a most interesting reference point for future vocational education policies. Instead of simply letting SME workers carry out different occasional tasks in an amateur fashion, one could educate them in such a way that they acquire multitask and modern vocational qualifications of a high standard by utilizing the possibilities offered by new technology. At the same time, employers and workers should not merely tolerate but jointly formulate the corresponding changes in work organization and industrial relations.

4.4. New technologies and qualifications

Greece is a country with virtually total dependence on foreign technology and this situation will not be changing in the foreseeable future. Several studies in industrially developed countries pointed out that many new technologies do not isolate 'one dimensionally' the organization of work, i.e. that, at any given time, the structure and form needed for vocational qualifications at microeconomic level is not defined in advance. On the contrary, there are margins for initiatives in the reform of jobs and relevant activities, in so far as one provides workers with appropriate qualifications and changes industrial relations correspondingly. Here, vocational education may play a decisive part in combination with other factors.

For vocational education in Greece, this means the creative synthesis of all relevant international experiences. This should aim at a broadening of the workers' basic vocational qualifications, a closer link between worker education and practice and a careful equilibrium of specific vocational needs, according to enterprise, and worker mobility amongst enterprises. This is indeed a difficult task. What must be avoided is a simplistic adoption of foreign models but instead what should be pursued is a creative, courageous, specialized and conscientious adaptation of such experiences to Greek circumstances. An important contribution to this could be made by many multinational companies with subsidiaries in Greece.

Turning again to the SMEs, new technologies offer the possibility of producing small amounts of products at low cost while keeping the highest quality specifications. This would, of course, necessitate, as mentioned above, intensive education or training programmes, with clear targets, modern methods and strict control and assessment mechanisms.

4.5. The European dimension

The convergence of different endeavours for vocational education throughout Europe in the light of unity through multiplicity does not only consist of technologically defined developments and restructurings. It also aims at European integration, i.e. the creation of an integrated European labour-market, in which a better correspondence between closely related vocational qualifications and their mutual recognition will be necessary. This effort should not ignore traditions and idiosyncrasies of national education and training systems but, on the contrary, should incorporate their most vital elements into specific programmes made to measure for individual national, regional, economic and political peculiarities.

Various EC programmes, such as PETRA, FORCE, ERGO, NOW, Euroform, etc., as well as CEDEFOP projects have, to date, contributed greatly to the improvement of vocational education at national level, to transnational exchange of experiences, as well as to encouraging and motivating cooperation between Greece and other Member States. The utilization of Community resources has recently been the object of critical investigation by Brussels as well as Athens. The degree of absorption of available resources is no longer the sole criterion of success for such programmes, although the assessment attempts being planned for each of the programmes do not suffice to estimate fully their effectiveness. In future, greater importance will be attached to those studies which will point out whether and how far individual measures or programmes have a chain reaction with closely related vocational education agencies. In other words, this means that we ought to investigate the part played by each programme as a 'propagator' or 'accelerator', as well as its knock-on effect, in the sense of encouraging wider reforms in the existing and cumbersome initial education system, so that such programmes are not merely limited to filling in gaps after the event in this very system.

Developing vocational qualifications which will be marketable and recognized at European level, with the concomitant planning and realization of corresponding education and training programmes, is becoming of increasingly vital significance. In addition, the international dispersion of new methods and technologies, for example, through cooperating enterprises, the need to establish minimum key qualifications in a number of occupations, as well as the marked similarity of many activities in occupations transnationally (for example, in construction, motor maintenance and repair, construction and operation of environmental installations), leads to a tendency of vocational education/training programmes to resemble each other. This convergence also facilitates the mobility of persons between different EC Member States and, more especially, the practice of the same occupation under similar conditions in more than one country. The programme Euroform and CEDEFOP's work to achieve equivalence of vocational education/training qualifications are two important elements in this endeavour. Greece actively participates in Euroform and has expressed a strong interest for high workforce mobility, as it is a country with many emigrants abroad. An issue that will keep its topicality in the future relates to the vocational education of emigrants' children or second and third generation emigrants from the viewpoint of a potential return to their home country.

4.6. The present situation

Formulating targets and assessing future perspectives necessitates at least a summary listing of the main problems of the present, which are as follows as concerns initial vocational education:

- only a small proportion of young people in a generation choose vocational education in any form;
- almost exclusively, in-school vocational education, having no link with practice, is provided in the TELs and TESs of the Ministry of Education, which is the largest agency for this educational sector;
- occupations or vocational qualification profiles are usually anachronistic;
- the social partners are absent from almost all design and implementation stages of vocational education policy;
- the content of studies is, in the main, antiquated; school books, teaching aids and methods outdated; laboratory equipment is inadequate and unspecialized;
- laboratory equipment is inadequate and unspecialized;
- vocational education graduates' qualifications are incomplete and only minimally marketable;
- research on vocational education is virtually non-existent, perhaps with the exception of the detailed programmes;
- there is inadequate absorption of national and Community financial resources.

As for further education, the most important problems are:

- an absence of any overall concept and coordination concerning the further education programmes available;
- a senseless fragmentation of effort, as well as overlap of many programmes;
- an inadequate preparation and rough and ready execution of most programmes;
- the heterogeneity of the groups being instructed and lack of a corresponding adaptation of content and methods of further education;
- a theoretical bias and lack of any links with practice in many cases;
- no assessment of almost any of the programmes;
- the low absorption of unemployed further education graduates by the labour-market, according to multiple indications;
- the abuse of several further education programmes in order to provide concealed funding for small and medium-sized enterprises, as well as vote-catching by many mayors and public officials;
- the low rate of absorption of available EC financial resources until recently.

Moreover, another great problem concerns those young people who, after completing the second cycle of secondary education (usually general education), fail to enter tertiary education and do not go to study abroad. This affects about 50 000 to 60 000 people a year, i.e. about two thirds of tertiary education candidates. A significant minority repeat the general exam once or twice in subsequent years; the majority, however, resort to the manifold private free studies centres or laboratories to acquire some informal training. The courses available there frequently have attractive names, for example, aircraft mechanic, shipping enterprise higher personnel, etc. Neither the content nor the methods used in these centres are subject to any teaching control by the educational services and, for this reason, they are not officially recognized. The few commendable exceptions to these centres prove the rule, which is that they are profit-making enterprises, paying scant attention to the profiles, targets, content or methods of the educational programmes. Yet, their very existence betrays the great lack of available educational programmes for young people of the abovementioned category and the strong demand by the economy for middle management, the vocational qualifications for which, however, cannot be defined or clearly specified.

The OAED apprenticeship, constituting as it does a shining example for vocational education in Greece, has recently had difficulties in finding job practice placements in businesses because many large enterprises, State controlled to a large extent, have become problematic and are in no position to recruit apprentices. The apprenticeship programmes themselves need updating, while there is also a need for any exchange of experiences with the Ministry of Education concerning identical or similar programmes, an exchange which could lead to creative cooperation aiming to improve the latter. Even the best OAED programmes only cover a tiny proportion of young people and the respective needs of the economy.

It is not known whether and to what degree further education is used in Greece as a means of combating specific labour-market problems, as there has been virtually no study of the execution or effectiveness of these programmes. The study initiated by CEDEFOP, on further education as a means of combating long-term unemployment, concluded that the various possibilities and means on offer were minimally used and lacked a target. The assessment of the PETRA programmes took place only because it was a part of the overall contract. As for the majority of the other programmes, the agencies responsible limit themselves to presenting a regular financial report, as well as formulating often flowery clichés in the conclusions chapter, concerning what should be done in the future.

4.7. Targets — Initiatives — Problems — Perspectives

The present situation of vocational education in Greece, taken together with existing and emerging socioeconomic needs, at both national and European levels, make up the factors defining future targets. The most important are:

(i) a growing proportion of student flows towards secondary vocational education through a radical qualitative improvement, renewal and restructuring of programmes and related diplomas;

(ii) radical revision of concepts concerning education, qualifications, suitability and further education of instructors and educationalists in vocational education, in the light of their ongoing further education and contact with practice;

(iii) linking with practice and differentiation of recognized vocations, while maintaining a wide range of key qualifications, in order to facilitate vocational mobility as well as future further education;

(iv) active participation by the social partners, as well as their undertaking essential and financial joint responsibility during the planning, make up, execution and control of programmes;

(v) incorporation of general education elements into courses, with the emphasis on intervocational content rather than the humanities;

(vi) decentralization and simplification of bureaucracy as regards the programmes on offer, while safeguarding equality of opportunity in education and occupations, as well as equivalence of diplomas from general and vocational education;

(vii) development of innovatory training programmes which will enable their graduates not only to assimilate but also actively to contribute to structural and technological change;

(viii) adaptation of vocational education policy and programmes, to European actuality and requirements, in view of the European labour-market, thus improving employment prospects and occupational mobility for the workers;

(ix) creation and/or support of agencies and establishments which deal systematically with research on vocations and the labour-market;

(x) creation of a system for equivalence and mutual recognition of vocational education titles at national and international levels;

(xi) development of a transparent further education system as an instrument for the completion and updating of initial education at all levels involved, all areas and all socioeconomic sectors.

If the above targets are met even in part, Greece will increase its chances to solve, to a large extent, certain fundamental socioeconomic matters, for example:

(a) to educate and utilize in the best way its sparse human resources;

(b) to select, introduce and creatively adapt, as well as implement effectively, new technologies and techniques;

(c) to encourage or motivate important investments in fields where the country offers relative advantages;

(d) to respond to the increasingly divergent production and organizational needs, starting from craft industries, through SMEs and ending with large productive units;

(e) to introduce new forms of organization and of industrial relations, so as to maximize the chances for workers' emancipation offered by the implementation of new technologies;

(f) to attach new content to traditional trades and occupations and thus to contribute to the reduction of regional and social inequalities;

(g) to promote the organic and, as far as possible, smooth integration of the country into the new European financial and social actuality.

The problems of vocational education have recently been the height of topicality. The State, trade unions, employers' organizations and other interested parties have moved beyond lengthy and, in part, generalized debate to specific action.

The creation of OEEK by the State, through Law 2009/1992, represents an important step forward in the effort to set up a national system for vocational education and training. This system has, among others, the following aims (Article 1):

- organizing and developing vocational education and training;
- recognition and establishment of vocational diplomas and degrees;
- harmonizing vocational education and training with the rest of the educational system;
- effecting national and European vocational education/training programmes;
- any other activity related to vocational education/training.

The main agency of this system is the newly set up Organization for Vocational Education and Training, which operates under the supervision of the Ministry of Education and has the following aims (Article 2):

- the organization and operation of institutes for vocational training (IEK);
- supervision of private IEKs;
- realization of the aims of the national system for vocational education and training.

The OEEK's activities, in principle, focus on the problematic group of young people who graduate from the second cycle of secondary education without recognized formal and substantial qualifications directly applicable to the labour-market, even if they completed studies at TESs and TELs. The vocational

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training courses of the IEKs are modular, so they are available in segments or in total to different interested groups, for example, gymnasion leavers, TES, TEL and GEL leavers, as well as to unskilled persons or older workers whose skills are experienced-based. The duration of these courses is from one to five six-month semesters, according to the speciality pursued and the level of education of the participant (of whatever age). Corresponding diplomas are awarded after strict examination and are officially recognized. Particular attention is paid to European recognition or establishment, so that the holders can practise their occupation in other Member States without hindrance.

Representatives of the social partners sit on the administrative board of the OEEK but their decentralized participation is also expected, at IEK level.

The OEEK is still being established. The first 14 public IEKs, of an experimental nature, began to operate in the autumn of 1992. The addition of new IEKs is expected during 1993, as well as the foundation of semi-public and privately run IEKs, as long as they meet OEEK specifications. Private IEKs will be permanently supervised by the OEEK.

The OEEK is facing great possibilities as well as risks. The mistakes of the past must, at all costs, be avoided, especially by the Ministry of Education. Any potential bureaucratic trends by the administration and any theoretical bias in the courses must be combated from the first moment. The OEEK, as well as individual IEKs, must create and develop continuous contact with the world of work through permanent two-sided cooperation with enterprises in every geographic area. Their targets, courses and education/training methods must be controlled constantly as regards their topicality, and continuously adapted to prevailing demands. Political courage must also be present in order to withdraw or abolish any outdated IEK courses or those no longer in demand and replace them with new ones. This will naturally necessitate unceasing, arduous and creative effort from the administration, the educationalists, the social partners and researchers dealing with the labour-market, the occupations involved and the programmes and courses.

The specification of recognized occupations, as well as the ranking of IEK diplomas, are still, mostly, unresolved. The boundaries between, and relationship of IEK diplomas with the other educational levels, i.e. 'downwards' (TES, TEL) and 'upwards' (TEI), is a subject which, depending on how it is dealt with, will influence profoundly and to a great extent pupil choice of education and, hence, pupil flows, occupational careers and collective work agreements. This topic, therefore, must be approached with great sensitivity and skill. The law is attempting what amounts to a formalistic equivalence of various IEK departments to some of the five European education levels, which may furnish an air of the guild mentality to the whole debate and effort and so cultivate a climate of élitism, i.e. it may lead to a dead end. In the final analysis, the IEKs' success will mainly be reckoned on the basis of the usefulness of the pertinent qualifications to the labour-market and not based on any random stipends which might accrue to a person in possession of the qualification title.

Employers have announced that the workers' education and training, more especially that of middle management, is, without doubt, the paramount concern of the 1990s. They identify this as the most important factor for the survival of Greek industry and the economy on the way to European integration. The highest employers' body, the Association of Greek Industries (SEB), as well as its subsidiary, the Economic and Industrial Research Institute (IOBE),

commissioned a range of studies on the identification and systematic description of the lack of specialities or skills in the most important industrial sectors. Five of these studies have already been completed, while the remaining 11 are still in progress. This is a most interesting attempt which, outside certain weaknesses in the precise specification of needs, may offer valuable suggestions to State and other policy-making agencies for vocational education. It also confirms the employers' will to undertake action, for the first time, in detail and with precise targets in this matter. What remains is the continuous revision and/or renewal of data, as well as their formulation in such a way that they will serve as tools or platforms for specific decision-making.

The trade unions involved have also, for the first time, concerned themselves seriously and systematically with the same subject. The Work Institute, which they set up relatively recently, has commissioned studies on the existing situation and possible lack of specializations or skills. Furthermore, the trade unions are willing to participate in education and training programmes. There is evidence of their intention to cooperate with the employers in this matter, closely and without party political blinkers. The employers' invitation to the unions to participate equally in the management of the special account for vocational training programmes for workers belongs to the same climate of cooperation, although this account is financed exclusively by the employers at 0.45% of total gross pay. The employers' generosity and the mutual trust displayed may possibly make this case unique in the whole of Europe.

Lastly, the OAED has already put in motion a systematic assessment of all the training and further education programmes it offers, aiming to deal with necessary changes after a careful analysis and documentation of the facts. The Organization is open to all suggestions, including a radical change of the legislative and institutional context involved, provided that it would lead to and develop a system more effective than in the past.

All the above clearly show that much is afoot at present in Greece concerning vocational education. As long as the present enthusiasm and willingness to work is maintained and certain fundamental mistakes are avoided, the prospects appear rather propitious because, in the final analysis, one may utilize a certain underdevelopment in a sector rather than merely complain about it. How? How else but by incorporating, sensitively and adaptively, the latest European and international experiences in vocational education, by starting at the lowest and progressing to the highest. Much remains to be done in order to transform this opportunity into reality.

ANNEXES

Annex 1

Abbreviations

AEI
Anotata Ekpedeftika Idrymata
Higher education establishments

Asetem
Anotera Scholi Ekpedeftikon Technologon Michanikon
Higher school of instructor technologist engineers

DEH
Dimossia Epichirissi Ilektrismou
Public electricity enterprise

DEKO
Dimossies Epichirissis kai Organismi
Public enterprises and organizations

EDIM
Eteria Dimografikon Meleton
Greek Demographic Studies Society

EEDE
Elliniki Eteria Diikissis Epichirisseon
Greek Society for Enterprise Management

EEEE
Elliniki Eteria Epichirissiakon Erevnon
Greek Society for Enterprise Research

Elkepa
Elliniko Kentro Paragogikotitos
Greek Productivity Centre

ELTA
Ellinika Tachidromia
Greek Post Office

EOMMEH
Ellinikos Organismos Mikromesseon Metapiitikon Epichirisseon kai Chirotechnias
Greek Organization of Small and Medium-sized Craft Industries

EOT
Ellinikos Organismos Tourismou
Greek Tourism Organization

EPL
Enieo Polykladiko Lykio
Integral multidiscipline lykeion

ESEEK
Ethniko Systima Epangelmatikis Ekpedefsis kai Katartisis
National vocational education and training system

CEDEFOP

ESEKA
Ethniko Symboulio Epangelmatikis Ekpedefsis kai Katartisis
National Council for Vocational Training and Employment

ESYE
Ethniki Statistiki Ypiresia tis Ellados
Greek National Statistical Service

GEL
Geniko Lykio
General lykeion

GSEE
Geniki Synomospondia Ergaton Ellados
General Confederation of Greek Workers

IEK
Instituta Epangelmatikis Katartissis
Vocational training institutes

ILPAP
Ilektrika Leoforia Pireos-Athinon-Proastion
Athens-Piraeus-suburbs electric buses

IOBE
Instituto Ikonomikon kai Viomichanikon Erevnon
Economic and Industrial Research Institute

ISAP
Ilektriki Sidirodromi Athinon-Pireos
Athens-Piraeus electric railways

ITE
Instituto Technologikis Ekpedefsis
Institute of Technical Education

IVEPE
Instituto Viomichanikis kai Epangelmatikis Epimorfosis
Industrial and Vocational Further Education Institute

KATEE
Kentra Anoteras Technikis kai Epangelmatikis Ekpedefsis
Higher technical vocational education centres

KEGE
Kentra Georgikis Ekpedefsis
Agricultural studies centres

Kemete
Kentra Meleton kai Tekmiriossis
Documentation and Studies Centre, replaced by the Instituto Ergasias (Work Institute)

KEPE
Kentro Programmatismou kai Ikonomikon Erevnon
Planning and Economic Studies Centre

KETEK
Kentra Technikis Epangelmatikis Katartissis
Technical-vocational training centres

OAED
Organismos Apascholisseos Ergatikou Dynamikou
Organization for the Employment of the Workforce

OEEK
Organismos Epangelmatikis Ekpedefsis kai Katartissis
Organization for Vocational Education and Training

OTE
Organismos Tilepikinonion tis Ellados
Greek Telecom Organization

Paseges
Panellinia Synomospondia Enosseon Georgikon Syneterismon
Panhellenic Confederation of Agricultural Cooperatives Unions

PATES
Pedagogiki Techniki Scholi
Pedagogical technical school

PI
Pedagogiko Instituto
Pedagogical Institute

SEB
Syndesmos Ellinikon Viomichanion
Association of Greek Industries

SEK
Scholika Ergastiriaka Kentra
Schools laboratory centres

Selete
Scholi Ekpedeftikon Litourgon Epangelmatikis kai Technikis Ekpedefsis
Teacher training college for vocational education and training

TEE
Techniko Epimelitirio tis Ellados
Technical Chamber of Commerce of Greece

TEI
Technologika Ekpedeftika Idrymata
Technical education institutes

TEL
Technika Ekpedeftika Lykia
Technical vocational lykeion

TES
Technikes Epangelmatikes Scholes
Technical vocational schools

CEDEFOP

Annex 2

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Annex 4

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Employment Directorate Tel. (30-1) 994 23 35

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